



DELHI UNIVERSITY
LIBRARY

DELHI UNIVERSITY LIBRARY SYSTEM

Cl. No. P111:7

66

Ac. No. 172526.

Date of release for loan

This book should be returned on or before the date last stamped below.

An overdue charge of Six rupees will be charged for each day the book is kept overtime.

DELHI UN.

FROM THE NEBRASKA INTERNATIONAL
BOOK PROJECT, AT THE
UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA

REVISION OF THEMES

Whenever your instructor writes in the margin of your theme a numeral with a decimal point (for example, 10.3), turn to the respective rule in *A Writer's Manual*, study the rule carefully, and make the proper revision. Ordinarily make the changes right on the original draft or, if your teacher prefers, add an extra sheet for the corrections; do not recopy the complete theme unless you are requested to do so or unless the revision is of such a nature as to make interlinear alterations impracticable (if you recopy, return the original draft with the new form). Do not erase the marks and comments of the instructor. For ease in finding rules, notice the following: the numbers of the rules are in the left margin; the first part of each number, the portion before the decimal point, is the same as the number of the respective chapter; the first rule in each chapter has 1 after the point, the second has 2, and so forth; on pages containing rules, the numbers are also printed over the inner margin as guides (on pages not containing rules, the chapter and section numbers are substituted). "Ap." in a number refers to the Appendixes.

For each rule number placed in the margin by the instructor, write on the back of the sheet (unless you use a separate correction sheet) an additional example (usually a complete sentence) in correct form; if the nature of the rule does not permit you to do this, copy the rule instead. If the instructor places *c.* before the rule number, copy the rule besides writing an additional example.

If a number without a decimal point but with a capital letter appears in the margin of your theme (for instance, 7, A), the figure refers to the chapter, and the letter to the section. Study the section, and make the proper revision.

If you have misspelled any words, write each misspelled word twenty times on the back of the sheet (or on a correction sheet). If the word has more than one syllable, divide it into syllables (with the aid of a dictionary) the first ten times.

If one of the following symbols is used by your instructor, make the improvement suggested:

cap	Capitalize.	No ¶	Do not begin a paragraph.
coh	Make coherent.	red	Avoid the redundancy (repetition of thought).
cl	Make clear.	ref	Revise the faulty reference.
cst	Improve the construction.	rep	Avoid the repetition of word or sound.
d	Improve the diction.	sp	Correct the spelling.
Ø	Delete, omit (symbol derived from Greek <i>d</i>).	tr	Transpose, rearrange.
e	Make more emphatic.	u	Make unified.
gr	Correct the grammar.	v	Clarify the vagueness.
h	Avoid the hackneyed expression.	w	Eliminate the wordiness.
id	Improve the idiom.	Λ	Insert the obvious omission.
K	Avoid the awkwardness.	×	Correct the obvious error.
lc	Do not capitalize (use a "lower-case" letter).	?	Check the data or inferences.
p	Correct the punctuation.	∩	Unite.
¶	Begin a paragraph.	/	Separate.

Note. When two rules cover the same principle, the number of the one containing the fuller discussion is in bold-faced italics. Within each main division, the subheads are arranged alphabetically except that under "Punctuation" the comma is placed first. The rules most frequently violated are indicated by bold-faced type.

PUNCTUATION

Comma—Ch. 21, § D

Compound sent. with conjunction, **5.1**, 21.10; unnecessary with short clauses, **5.2**, 21.10.
Comma splice, **5.8**, 13.8, 21.11 (transitional expression not a conjunction, **5.5**, 5.9); error of merely removing comma, 5.13.

Initial adverbial elements: clause, **11.3**, 21.12 (short clause, 11.4); long phrase, **3.2**, 21.12; prep. gerund phrase, **17.7**, 21.12; inf., 21.12.
Inserted elements, 21.13.

Restrictive and non-restr. modifiers (definition of restrictive, 10.1—of non-restrictive, 10.2): adj. cl., **10.3**, 21.14; other adj. mod., 10.4; restr. app., 10.5 (meaning changed by c., 10.7); non-restr. appositive, 10.6 (meaning changed by c., 10.7); *such as*, 10.11; non-restrictive part., 16.6; final adv. cl., 11.5; cl. with *provided that*, 11.6; cl. of degree or comparison, 11.7; cl. of concession, pure result, contrast, 11.8; clause of purpose, reason, 11.9–11.10.

Series—*a*, *b*, and *c*, **1.4**, 21.15; complicated 2-part pred., 1.3; and without comma, 1.5.

Consecutive coordinate adjectives, 21.16.

Short direct quotation, **12.6**, 21.17; quotation interrupted by *he said*, **12.8**, 21.17.

Elements falsely read together, 21.18.

Slightly parenthetical elements, 21.19; nom. of address, **8.2**, 21.19a; nom. absolute, **16.8**, 21.19b; clauses, **5.10–5.11**, 21.19f; transitional expressions (c. unnecessary after *hence*, etc.), **5.6**, 10.12, 21.19d ("buried" transitional exp., 5.7); parenthetical infinitive, 18.2; etc.

Complicated noun clause as subject, 12.2.

Pred. repeating last word of noun cl., 12.3.

Comma incorrect, 21.20: indirect quot., 12.9; dropping of c. before dash, 21.32; dropping of c. with question mark plus quots., 21.48; *however* as a rel. adv., 13.9; *you know*, etc., 10.14; most n. cl., 12.1; ger. in most uses, 17.6; short initial phr., 3.3; initial phr. followed immediately by verb, 3.4; restrictive adj. cl., 10.3; restrictive appositive, 10.5; restrictive part., 16.5; series—*a* and *b* and *c* (or, *a* and *b*), 1.2.

Brackets—Ch. 21, § H

Editorial insertion, 21.40.

Parenthesis within parenthesis, 21.41.

Colon—Ch. 21, § F

Final appositive, list series, etc., **21.24**, 10.9.

Appositive with *namely*, etc., 10.12.

Final noun cl. in non-restrictive apposition, 12.5.

PUNCTUATION (continued)

Colon (completed)

Final gerund in non-restr. apposition, 17.6.

Long or formal quotation, **12.7**, 21.25.

Salutation of formal letter, 21.26.

Time indication, Bible reference, 21.27.

Dash—Ch. 21, § G

Broken sentence, 21.28.

Complicated non-restrictive expression, **10.8** 21.29; noun clause, 12.4; gerund, 17.6.

Appositive with *namely*, etc., 10.12.

Final appositive, 10.9.

Parenthetical material, 21.30.

Summary of preceding series, 21.31.

Dropping of comma or period before dash, 21.32

Overuse of dash, 21.33.

Exclamation Point

Exclamatory sent., 1.9; any exclamation, 21.9

Retention of exclamation p. before dash, 21.32

Parentheses—Ch. 21, § H

Parenthetical material, 21.34.

Other punctuation with parentheses, 21.35.

Separate sentence in parentheses, 21.36.

Confirmatory figure, 21.37.

Numerals for numbering points, 21.38.

Deletion, 21.39.

Period—Ch. 21, § B; etc.

Declarative or imperative sentence, **1.7**, 21.1.

Abbreviation, **21.2**, 21.11.

Fragmentary sentence, 21.3.

Quot. interrupted by *he said*, etc., **12.8**, 21.17

Dropping of period before dash, 21.32.

Dropping of period before closing mark of parenthesis, 21.35.

Dropping of period with question mark plus quotation marks, 21.48.

Question Mark—Ch. 21, § C

Interrogative sentence, **1.8**, 21.4.

Indirect question, 21.5.

Polite request in question form (period), 21.6

Uncertainty, 21.7.

Irony (objectionable), 21.8.

Retention of question mark before dash, 21.32

Quotation Marks (and quotations)—Ch. 21, § I

Direct quotation, 21.42.

Indirect quotation (not), 21.43.

Quotation interrupted by *he said*, etc., 21.45

Quotation of more than one paragraph, 21.44.

Change of speaker, 21.46.

Other punctuation with quotation marks, 21.47

PUNCTUATION (completed)

Quotation Marks (completed)

- Comma or period with exclamation point or question mark plus quotation marks, 21.48.
- Quoted titles, 21.49.
- Unfamiliar technical terms, 21.50.
- Slang, 28.8; overuse as indication of irony or apology for slang, 21.51.
- Quotation within quotation, 21.52.
- Blocked quotation, 22.45.
- Citation of source of quotation, 22.46.

Semicolon—Ch. 21, § E

- Compound sent. without conj., 5.4, 21.21.
- Compound sent. with only trans. exp., 5.5, 5.9.
- "Run-together" sentence, 5.12.
- Appositive with *that is*, 10.12.
- Quot. interrupted by *he said*, etc., 12.8, 21.17.
- Complicated compound sentence, 5.3, 21.22.
- Complicated elements not indep. clauses, 21.23.

General

- Sentences, Ch. 1, § H.
- Clauses, Ch. 13, § E: Independent Clauses, Ch. 5, § D, § E, § F; Adjective Clauses, Ch. 10, § C; Adverbial Clauses, Ch. 11, § C; Noun Clauses, Ch. 12, § B.
- Participles, Ch. 16, § D.
- Gerunds, Ch. 17, § D.

MECHANICS

Abbreviations—Ch. 22, § B

- Abbreviations generally undesirable (exceptions listed), 22.7.
- Abbreviations in business letters, 22.8.
- Matter requiring brevity, 22.9.
- Capitalization of abbreviations, 22.10.
- Period after abbreviations, 21.2, 22.11.

Apostrophe—Ch. 22, § G

- Possessive forms—subhead under "Grammar."
- Omission of letters, 22.36.
- Plural of figure, letter, etc., 7.12, 22.39.

Capitals—Ch. 22, § A

- Sentence, 1.6, 22.1.
- Direct quotation, 22.1.
- Each line of poetry, 22.2.
- Proper nouns and adjectives, 22.3; unnecessary if association with original has been lost, 22.4.
- Subjects of study, 22.5.
- I, O; salutation of letter, etc., 22.6.

Compounds—Ch. 22, § E

- Numerals, 22.25; fractions, 22.26.
- Compound adj. modifier preceding noun, 22.27.
- Compound noun ending in prep. or adv., 22.28.
- Other compounds, 22.29.

MECHANICS (completed)

Investigative Paper—Ch. 22, § J

- Card bibliography, 22.51 (supplementary notes. Ap. 2): bibliography card for reference work, Ap. 3; bibliography cards alphabetical, Ap. 4.
- Card catalog, 22.52; *Reader's Guide*, 22.53; bibliographies in encyclopedias, etc., 22.54; bibliographies for special fields, 22.55.
- Notes, 22.56; exact reference, 22.57.
- Outline, 22.58.
- Footnotes, 22.59: amount of text covered, insertion in text, Ap. 5; books, 22.60 (no comma before parentheses with place and year, footnote for bulletin, book in series, writing unconnected with rest of book, Ap. 6); magazine articles, 22.61 (no comma before parentheses with year, Ap. 7); "guide" for footnotes, Ap. 8; *ibid.*, *op. cit.*, *loc. cit.*, etc., 22.62; avoidance of repeating data, 22.63; parenthetical matter, 22.64.
- Bibliographical lists, 22.65: lines solid, entries for bulletin, book in series, unconnected writing, Ap. 9; "guide" for bibl. entries, Ap. 10.
- Note on other systems of documentation, Ap. 11.

Italics—Ch. 22, § D

- Indication in typing or script, 22.19.
- Words, etc., out of context, 22.20.
- Quoted titles, 22.21.
- Unnaturalized foreign words, 22.22.
- Emphasis, 22.23, 27.16.
- Ships, resolutions, law cases, 22.24.

Manuscript—Ch. 22, § II

- Materials, 22.40; margins and spacing, 22.41.
- Legibility, 22.42.
- Titles: choice of, 22.43; mechanics of, 22.44.
- Quotations, 22.45; citation of source, 22.46.
- Acknowledgment of indebtedness, 22.47.
- Paging, 22.48; folding, 22.49.
- Endorsing, 22.50.

Numbers—Ch. 22, § C

- Figures preferable, 22.12.
- Words preferable, 22.13.
- Dates, time of day, street numbers, references tables, 22.14.
- Avoidance of figures initially, 22.15.
- Uniformity, 22.16.
- Sums of money, 22.17.
- Confirmatory figures, 22.18.

Syllabication—Ch. 22, § F

- Avoidance of setting off short elements, 22.30.
- Splitting of a syllable wrong, 22.31.
- Division between component parts, 22.32.
- Single consonant between two vowels, 22.33.
- More than one cons. between two vowels, 22.34.
- Hyphen at end of first line, 22.35.

GRAMMAR

Adjective and Adverb

Modifier of verb, 2.7.

Due to (adjectival), 3.1.

Adjective with verb pertaining to senses, 2.10.

Agreement—Ch. 7, § C, § E; etc.

Pron. with ant., 7.13; singularity of *each*, etc., 7.14 (mas. pron. for common gender, 7.15).

Verb with subject, 7.16 (not with subjective complement, 8.1); noun intervening, 7.17; *as well as*, etc., 7.18; *he don't*, 7.19; compound subject with *and*, 7.20 (near identity, actual identity, 7.21); compound subject with *or*, *nor*, 7.22 (with different forms of verb, 7.23); subj. following verb, 7.24; plu. rel. pron., 7.25; sing. rel. pron., 7.26; collective sing., 7.27; collective noun as plu., 7.28; *a number of*, etc., 7.29; mass plu., 7.30; *data*, *scissors*, etc., 7.31; *news*, *politics*, *athletics*, 7.32; plu. title, etc., 7.33.

Case Functions—Ch. 9, § C; etc.

Subject, 9.11.

Subjective complement, 9.11.

Nominative of address, 9.11.

Direct object, 9.12.

Indirect object, 9.12.

Object of preposition, 9.12.

Objective complement, 9.12.

Adverbial noun, 9.13.

Appositive, 9.16.

Substantive of nominative absolute, 16.3.

"Subject" of obj.-inf. construction, 18.1.

Complement after *to be* in obj.-inf. constr., 18.1.

Poss. with gerund, 17.1 (exceptions, 17.2).

Case of relative pronoun, 10.13; not affected by parenthetical *he knows*, etc., 10.14.

Case of pronoun in noun clause, 12.10.

Possessive of inanimate objects illogical, 9.14 (exceptions, 9.15).

Comparison—Ch. 2, § C; Ch. 11, § E

Positive, 2.1.

Comparative, 2.2, 2.8.

Superlative, 2.3, 2.8.

Forms in adjective, 2.4.

Forms in adverb, 2.5.

Adjective, adverb lacking comparison, 2.6.

Different than, 2.9.

Logical comparison: comp. degree, 11.25; superlative degree, 11.26; exact specification, 11.27.

Conjunctions—Ch. 11, § D; etc.

As . . . as vs. *so . . . as*, 11.1.

As . . . as, *than* not prep., 11.20 (*than whom*, 11.21); pron. as obj. after *as . . . as*, *than*, 11.22; ambiguous noun after *as . . . as*, *than*, 11.23.

GRAMMAR (continued)

Conjunctions (completed)

Mixture of *than* and *as . . . as*, 11.24.

Omission of subordinating conjunction, 11.2.

Like not a conj., 11.11; a preposition, 11.12.

Without not a conjunction, 11.13.

While for *and*, 11.14.

While for *whereas*, 11.15.

While for concession, 11.16.

As and *since* for cause, 11.17.

Providing for *provided*, 11.18.

So and *such as* intensives, 11.19.

Because in noun clause, 12.11.

When or *where* cl. as subj. complement, 12.12.

Where clause as direct object, 12.13.

Dangling Elements

Participle, 16.9.

Gerund phrase: active, 17.3; passive, 17.4
general agent, 17.5.

Infinitive, 18.3.

Elliptical clause, 23.4.

Plural of Nouns—Ch. 7, § A

Nouns not ending in sibilant, 7.1.

Nouns ending in sibilant, 7.2.

Common nouns in *y*, 7.3.

Proper nouns in *y*, 7.4.

Nouns in *f* or *fe*, 7.5.

Nouns in *o*, 7.6.

Nouns adding *en*, 7.7.

Nouns changing vowels, 7.8.

Unchanged plurals, 7.9.

Foreign plurals, 7.10.

Compound nouns, 7.11.

Letter, symbol, etc., 7.12.

Position of Modifiers—Ch. 13, § A; etc.

Elements falsely read together, 13.1; adverbial modifier moved to beginning, 13.2; change of construction desirable, 13.3.

Confused compound predicate, 13.4.

Position of *only*, etc., 13.5.

Adjective cl. separated from word modified, 13.6.

Squinting modifier, 13.7.

Awkward split infinitive, 18.5; permissible split infinitive, 18.4.

Possessive Forms—Ch. 9, § A, § B

Personal, relative, and inter. pron., 9.1, 22.38.

Indefinite pronoun, 9.2, 22.37.

Nouns, 22.37: poss. sing. of most nouns, 9.3; poss. sing. of nouns in *s*, 9.4 (apostrophe never precedes original *s*, 9.5); poss. plu. of *s* plurals, 9.6; poss. plu. of plurals not in *s*, 9.7; avoidance of awkward forms by phr. with *of*, 9.8; compound expression, 9.9; joint ownership, 9.10; poss. of inanimate objects illogical, 9.14 (exceptions, 9.15).

GRAMMAR (completed)

Sentences and Fragments—Ch. 4; etc.

Necessity of subject and predicate, 1.1, 4.1.

Necessity of finite form, 4.2.

Elliptical sentences: commands, 4.3; answers, 4.4; exclamations, 4.5; other situations (not recommended for student), 4.6.

Fragments, 20.1, 21.3: appositive, 10.10; dependent clause, 13.10; participle, 16.7; nominative absolute, 16.8.

Subjunctive—Ch. 15, § C

Conditions contrary to fact, 15.1.

Wishes, 15.2.

Commands, motions, etc., 15.3.

Clauses of purpose, 15.4.

As if and *as though* clauses, 15.5.

Concessions (if supposition), 15.6.

Simple conditions (optional), 15.7.

Tense—Ch. 6

Past for past perfect, 6.1.

Inconsistent change of tense, 6.2.

Sequence of tense after past t., 6.3; general truth, 6.4; in purpose cl., 6.6; in verbal, 18.6.

Sequence of tense after present tense, 6.5; in purpose clause, 6.6.

Shall—will: simple future, 6.7; determination of speaker, 6.8; determination of subject, 6.9; willingness, promise in 1st person, 6.10; questions, 6.11; indirect quotation, 6.12.

Should—would: obligation, improbable condition, reasonable expectation, 6.13; customary action, wish, 6.14; other meanings, 6.15.

Troublesome Verbs—Ch. 19

Principal parts of troublesome verbs, 19.1.

Rise—raise, 19.2.

Lie—lay, 19.3.

Sit—set, 19.4.

Shall—will, should—would, see "Tense."

RHETORIC

Diction—Ch. 23

Exact word, 28.1; loose phrasing, 28.2; specific word, 28.3.

Diction appropriate to subject, occasion, and tone, 28.4: colloquialism, 28.5 (contraction, 28.6); vulgarism, 28.7; slang, 28.8; archaic, obsolete, or poetic word, 28.9; "fine writing," 28.10; triteness, 28.11 (in letters, 30.17); unidiomatic expression, 28.12; diction appropriate to readers, 28.13.

Concrete word, 28.14; suggestive word, 28.15 (misleading suggestion, 28.16); figure of speech, 28.17 (mixed figure, 28.18).

Emphatic diction, 28.19.

Glossary of faulty usage, 28.20.

Economy—Ch. 23

Wordiness, 23.1.

Tautology, 23.2.

Elliptical clause, 23.3.

RHETORIC (completed)

Emphasis—Ch. 24, Ch. 27

Subordination, 24.1, 27.1: weakness of *so* result clause, 24.2; correction of comma splice by subordination, 24.3; choppy sentences, 24.4; stringiness, 24.5 (repetition of *but* or *for* to join clauses, 24.6); upside-down subordination, 24.7; subordination by verbals, 24.8 (use of verbals to remove stringiness and choppy sentences, 24.9).

Weak passive, 14.2, 27.2.

Effective passive, 14.1, 27.3.

Balance, 27.4.

Separation, 27.5.

Position, 27.6.

Last sentence of paragraph, 27.7.

Periodic sentence, 27.8.

Parenthetical element at end, 27.9.

Frequent weakness of nominative absolute, 16.4; at end, 27.9.

"Buried" parenthetical element, 5.7, 27.10.

Order of climax, 27.11.

Transposed word order, 27.12.

Omission of useless words, 23.1-3, 27.13.

Repetition, 25.9, 27.14.

Variety, 25.1-10, 27.15.

Italics, 22.23, 27.16.

Rhetorical question, 27.17.

Emphatic diction, 28.19.

Parallelism—Ch. 26; etc.

Parallel structure, 26.1; outline, 26.2.

Disagreeable change of voice, 14.3.

Necessary change of voice, 14.4.

Misleading parallelism, 26.3; *and who*, etc., 26.4.

Correlatives, 26.5.

Reference of Pronouns—Ch. 25, § E

Ambiguous antecedent, 25.11.

Inconspicuous or implied antecedent, 25.12.

Possible antecedent of impersonal pronoun, 25.13.

You, they, it as indefinite pronouns, 25.14.

Clause as antecedent of pronoun, 25.15.

Singular pronoun with *each*, etc., 7.14, 25.16.

Variety—Ch. 25

Variety of sentence types, 25.1.

Variety of sentence beginning, 25.2; avoidance of strained word order and faulty emphasis, 25.3; verbals for variety of sentence beginning, 25.4.

Repetition of words, 25.5; avoidance of awkwardness, etc., 25.6.

Repetition for clearness, 25.7 (repetition of article for clearness, 25.8).

Repetition of sound, 25.10.

Reference of pronouns—see previous subhead.

MISCELLANEOUS TOPICS

Correspondence—Ch. 30

- Stationery: business letter, 30.1; social letter, 30.2.
 Headings, 30.3: cautions (#; 12/24/36; *st.*, etc., with the day after the month; omission of *Street, Avenue*), preferable not to abbreviate except *D. C.* and *U. S. A.*, 30.4.
 Inside address, 30.5: for clergymen and public officials, 30.6; for married women, 30.7; names of positions not abbreviated, 30.8.
 Salutation, 30.9: for clergymen and public officials, 30.10; "attention of —," 30.11; salutation in a personal letter, 30.12.
 Body, 30.13: paragraph length, 30.14, Ap. 15e; conciseness and directness, 30.15; standard grammar, spelling, punctuation, 30.16; trite diction, 30.17; courtesy, 30.18; the reply letter, 30.19; paragraphing and adaptation of personal letter, 30.20.
 Complimentary close: business letter, 30.21; personal letter, 30.22.
 Signature: business letter, 30.23; initials of typist, 30.24; woman's signature in personal letter, 30.25.
 Outside address, 30.26: of married woman or widow, 30.27; legibility and return address, 30.28.
 Formal notes, 30.29; semi-formal notes, 30.30.
Paragraph—Ap. IV
 Unity, Ap. 12.
 Coherence, Ap. 13.
 Choppy paragraphs, Ap. 14 (situations permitting short paragraphs, Ap. 15).

MISCELLANEOUS TOPICS (completed)

Spelling—Ch. 29

- Plurals of nouns—subhead under "Grammar."
 Possessive forms—subhead under "Grammar."
 Compounds—subhead under "Mechanics."
 Contractions, 22.36.
 Suffixes: doubling of final consonant, 16.1; dropping of final *e*, 16.2 (retention of *e* after *c* or *g* if before a back vowel, 29.1; change of *c* to *ck* before a front vowel, 29.2); *y* before vowel suffix, 29.3; *y* before *s*, 29.4; any letter but *y* before consonantal suffix, 29.5; addition of *-ly*, 29.6; *-ful*, 29.7.
 Prefixes: prefix ending in unassimilated consonant, 29.8; prefix ending in assimilated consonant, 29.9; prefix ending in vowel, 29.10; words with *per-* (not *pre-*), 29.11; words with *de-* (not *dis-*), 29.12.
 Order of *ie* and *ei*, 29.13.
 Verbs in *-ceed*, *-cede*, related nouns, 29.14.
 Misspelling because of mispronunciation, 29.15 (insertion of a sound, 29.16).
 Omission of silent letters, 29.17.
 Tricky vowels: *a*, 29.18; *i*, 29.19; *e*, 29.20; *o*, 29.21.
 Superficial resemblances, 29.22; related words with minor differences, 29.23.
All right, altar, alter, conscience, Mississippi, murmur, necessary, necessity, written, embarrass, occasion, night, occupy, pantomime, privilege, sergeant, similar, villain, captain, certain, Britain, where, which, 29.24.
 Test list, 29.25; supplementary test list, 29.26.
 Words with two spellings: preferred form, 29.27; form preferred in America, 29.28.

A
Writer's Manual
and Workbook

PAUL P. KIES

*State College of Washington
in collaboration with*

VALEDA BROCKWAY

ELLA E. CLARK

State College of Washington

ANDREW J. GREEN

University of Michigan

and

ROYAL A. GETTMANN

University of Nebraska

Enlarged Edition

1943

F. S. CROFTS & CO.

New York

COPYRIGHT, 1933, 1936, BY F. S. CROFTS & CO., INC.

First Printing, May, 1933

Enlarged Edition, 1936

Seventeenth printing, March, 1943.

ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

No part of the material covered by this copyright may be reproduced in any form without permission in writing from the publisher.



MANUFACTURED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

PREFACE

A Writer's Manual and Workbook is a combined review grammar, concise rhetoric, handbook of revision, and exercise pad. It deals progressively with grammatical background, punctuation, mechanics, and fundamental rhetorical principles, but also contains a convenient system for the correction of themes.

Grammar is restricted to essentials and is definitely correlated with practice. Most rhetorics assume that the average student knows grammatical terms and constructions well enough to understand discussions of rhetorical theory, and grammars ordinarily do not make direct application to punctuation and rhetorical principles. We believe that the present correlation will make possible the elimination of one or two books, and that, for most courses in freshman composition, *A Writer's Manual and Workbook* with a collection of readings offers sufficient text material. Organization, the paragraph, and the special technique of particular types of writing can be presented effectively by the instructor with the use of models. Teachers wishing to add a formal rhetoric, however, will find the correlation easy.

The *Workbook* is so arranged that the amount of writing on the part of the student is reduced to a minimum; consequently, he can cover much more material than would be feasible otherwise. Much time is saved for the teacher by the fact that the exercises can be graded very quickly—most of them even while being discussed in class. Furthermore, the exercises require the student to make the kind of decision that is really essential for original composition. When a person writes, he does not ordinarily have occasion to correct sentences that he knows contain certain errors, but he is continually confronted with such questions as whether to use a comma or a semicolon, the nominative case or the objective, coördination or subordination. Even in the few exercises consisting of the revision of errors, some correct sentences have been included, in order that the student must first decide what is right and what is wrong. Instead of going through his tasks mechanically, he is challenged to master principles. Directions and sentences for diagramming are provided at the end of chapters dealing with grammatical constructions; but if not desired, they can be readily omitted, for they do not form an integral part of the organization.

The assignments can be easily adapted to the needs of each class. Where students are classified in their composition work, the less advanced sections will emphasize the fundamental principles and make use of the ample drill material as needed. The more advanced sections can cover some parts rapidly and even omit certain portions altogether, but they should have the whole *Manual* for reference.

The correction chart is time-saving and flexible. It not only gives the main section numbers, as is usual in handbooks now on the market, but also itemizes the separate rules. (For the explanation of the correction system, see "To the Teacher," page xi, and "Revision of Themes," page i.)

The section on the investigative paper—which includes a discussion of index cards, note-taking, footnotes, and bibliography forms—will prove, we hope, to be a valuable feature.

A Writer's Manual and Workbook is based upon the combined experience of about forty teachers during the last seven years. Although the actual text was prepared by the five persons whose names appear on the title page, many helpful suggestions were contributed by colleagues. The book was developed in the classroom. The printed form is the result of the successive revision of two mimeographed editions, the second of which was tested with twelve hundred students in 1931-32.

We wish to thank Professor Donald L. Clark, in charge of courses in College Composition, University Extension, Columbia University, for his valuable advice and suggestions. We are also greatly indebted to Doctor Roland B. Botting, Miss Dorothy Dakin, Mr. Karl G. Pfeiffer, Mr. Chester Whitner, Mr. Theodore Crawford, many other present and former members of the English Department of the State College of Washington, and Miss Agnes Smalley, Reference Librarian. Among the books consulted, special mention should be made of *A Manual of Style*, University of Chicago Press, and of George O. Curme's *Syntax*.

THE AUTHORS.

PREFACE TO THE ENLARGED EDITION

In this Enlarged Edition, the following material has been added: diction, spelling, correspondence, supplementary notes on the investigative paper, the paragraph, practice sheets on emphasis, on diction, and for general review.

TO THE TEACHER

A Writer's Manual and Workbook is based upon the conviction that in freshman composition more class time should be devoted to the sentence than to any other unit of writing, and that the student needs more practice than rhetorical theory. The first twenty chapters stress grammar and the fundamental points of punctuation; and the latter half of the manual treats punctuation (Chapter 21), other mechanics (22), the main principles of rhetoric (23-28), spelling (29), correspondence (30), and the paragraph (Appendix IV). We recommend that "Wordiness" (23, § A and Ex. A) be taken up as soon after Chapter 10 as convenient, that "Subordination" (24) except § F and Ex. E follow Chapter 11, and that "Mechanics" (22) except "The Investigative Paper" (§ J) be distributed among the earlier lessons of the course. Most instructors will probably wish to introduce portions of Chapter 21, especially the sections on the colon and the dash, before the completion of the first twenty chapters, and to postpone "Sequence of Tenses," "Shall—Will," and "Should—Would" (6, § B, § D, § E, and Ex. C, Ex. D, Ex. E) till most of the other material of the first twenty-eight chapters has been covered.

In criticizing a theme, the instructor should give enough help, but not too much. The more difficult the point and the less advanced the student, the more specific the directions for revision should be; but, as the student progresses, he should be led to become more and more independent. Sometimes general correction symbols (see the list at the bottom of "Revision of Themes," on page i) are sufficient; when more guidance is needed by the student, either specific rules or section numbers should be cited. Without consulting more than the correction chart (in the front of this book), the teacher can mark a whole set of themes with general symbols, section numbers, and specific rule numbers, according as he wishes to adapt his suggestions to the ability and advancement of each student. Charts ordinarily give only the main section numbers—without itemizing the separate rules; hence they neither help the instructor with the general symbols (which he soon knows by memory) nor eliminate the task of leafing through the pages for the specific rule numbers. Most instructors, however, probably have occasion to cite specific rules much oftener than sections. (For further explanation of the correction system, see "Revision of Themes.")


In a department in which the students are classified in their composition work, the less advanced sections should emphasize the fundamental material (omitting, if necessary, the more difficult principles of rhetoric). For points which in some classes require considerable drill, ample material is included. For instance, the comma splice is introduced early and is treated several times in various manners. The high sections can leave out the simpler parts entirely (such as Chapter 19) and cover certain other portions rather rapidly (for instance, in Chapter 7 the reading of the discussion in the *Manual* and the preparation of Exercises G and H will probably be sufficient); hence they will have more time for the more advanced principles of rhetoric, for readings, and for composition proper. The use of the same handbook in the various groups facilitates promotions and demotions. In unclassified sections the instructor can compromise in the class assignments and thus have certain exercises available for supplementary work for students who need extra drill.

At the State College of Washington, we have found diagramming superfluous for the high sections, but very helpful for the average and the lower groups. Of course, the instructor should bear in mind that it is merely a means for explaining and impressing grammatical construction—not an end in itself.

We should like to make a few additional suggestions. First, all the used practice sheets in the *Workbook* should be collected by the instructor (preferably as soon as they have been discussed). Second, the student should be encouraged to carry over into his composition work the principles studied. For instance, in the next theme after Chapter 24 has been considered, subordination might be stressed; or, after the section on quotation marks has been covered, a theme consisting chiefly of conversation might be assigned. Third, a student who persists in a certain error should be required to write original sentences illustrating the correct application of the rule violated (see "Revision of Themes"). Fourth, in spelling drill (Chapter 29), the student should concentrate upon the words that he can not spell; accordingly, after § D, the teacher should dictate at each meeting the words that will be covered by the test the next time. A procedure that encourages the student to continue the study of words missed in tests is to include in each test after the first some words from previous lessons and to give a final examination over the whole chapter. If the student makes a carbon copy of each test (with pencil carbon), he can immediately check his own errors (except in § B, § C, and § D), and the copy handed in need not be returned to him after being graded.

CONTENTS

	Page
CHAPTER 1. SUBJECT AND PREDICATE	1
A) The Sentence. B) The Subject. C) The Noun. D) The Pronoun. E) The Predicate. F) The Compound Subject and Predicate. G) Punctuation of the Series. H) Capitalization and Punctuation of Sentences. I) Diagramming the Subject and the Verb.	
CHAPTER 2. ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS	6
A) The Adjective. B) The Adverb. C) Comparison. D) Common Errors. E) Diagramming the Adjective and the Adverb.	
CHAPTER 3. PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES	10
A) Definitions. B) Kinds of Prepositional Phrase. C) Complete Subject and Predicate. D) Position of the Subject. E) "Due to—" F) Punctuation of a Phrase in Initial Position. G) Diagramming the Prepositional Phrase and the Expletive.	
CHAPTER 4. FRAGMENTS AS SENTENCES	15
A) Necessity of Clear Thinking. B) The Sentence. C) Fragmentary Sentences. D) Elliptical Sentences. E) Diagramming to Test Completeness.	
CHAPTER 5. THE COMPOUND SENTENCE	19
A) The Independent Clause. B) The Simple Sentence. C) The Compound Sentence. D) Punctuation of the Compound Sentence. E) The Comma Splice. F) The "Run-Together" Sentence. G) Diagramming the Compound Sentence.	
CHAPTER 6. TENSE AND PERSON	25
A) Tense. B) Sequence of Tenses. C) Person. D) <i>Shall—Will</i> . E) <i>Should—Would</i> .	
CHAPTER 7. NUMBER	30
A) Number of Nouns. B) Number of Pronouns. C) Agreement of the Pronoun with Its Antecedent. D) Number of the Verb. E) Agreement of the Verb with the Subject. F) Diagramming to Test Agreement of the Verb.	
CHAPTER 8. FUNCTIONS OF THE SUBSTANTIVE	38
A) The Substantive. B) The Subjective Complement. C) The Direct Object. D) The Indirect Object. E) The Objective Complement. F) The Appositive. G) The Nominative of Address. H) Compound Substantive Constructions. I) Diagramming Substantive Constructions.	
CHAPTER 9. CASE	46
A) Case Forms of Pronouns. B) Case Forms of Nouns. C) Chief Functions of the Cases. D) Common Errors in Case. E) Diagramming the Adjective Noun and the Adverbial Noun. F) Diagramming to Test Case. G) Review Diagramming.	
CHAPTER 10. THE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE	52
A) The Complex Sentence. B) The Adjective Clause. C) Restrictive and Non-Restrictive Modifiers. D) Case of the Relative Pronoun. E) Review of Adjective Modifiers. F) Diagramming the Adjective Clause.	

	Page
CHAPTER 11. THE ADVERBIAL CLAUSE	61
A) Definition. B) Subordinating Conjunctions. C) Punctuation of the Adverbial Clause. D) Common Errors in Conjunctions. E) Comparisons. F) Diagramming the Adverbial Clause.	
CHAPTER 12. THE NOUN CLAUSE	70
A) Definition. B) Punctuation of the Noun Clause. C) Common Errors. D) The Compound-Complex Sentence. E) Diagramming the Noun Clause.	
CHAPTER 13. POSITION OF MODIFIERS; REVIEW	78
A) Position of Modifiers. B) Review of Adverbial Modifiers. C) Review of Substantives. D) Summary of Clauses and Sentences. E) Summary of the Punctuation of Clauses. F) Review of the Diagramming of Clauses.	
CHAPTER 14. VOICE; TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE	84
A) Voice. B) Transitive and Intransitive. C) Rhetorical Effect of the Passive. D) Diagramming the Subjective Complement after a Passive Verb.	
CHAPTER 15. THE SUBJUNCTIVE MODE	88
A) Mode. B) Forms of the Subjunctive. C) Specific Uses of the Subjunctive.	
CHAPTER 16. THE PARTICIPLE	90
A) Definition and Forms. B) Functions. C) The Nominative Absolute. D) Punctuation of the Participle and the Nominative Absolute. E) Dangling Participles. F) Diagramming the Participle.	
CHAPTER 17. THE GERUND	97
A) Definition and Forms. B) Functions. C) The Dangling Gerund Phrase. D) Punctuation of the Gerund. E) Diagramming the Gerund.	
CHAPTER 18. THE INFINITIVE	101
A) Definition and Forms. B) Functions. C) The Dangling Infinitive. D) The Split Infinitive. E) Verbals and Sequence of Tense. F) Diagramming the Infinitive.	
CHAPTER 19. TROUBLESOME VERBS	106
A) Principal Parts. B) Classes of Verbs. C) Troublesome Verbs.	
CHAPTER 20. REVIEW OF GRAMMATICAL ELEMENTS	111
A) Summary of Grammatical Elements. B) Review of Fragmentary Sentences. C) Review of Diagramming.	
CHAPTER 21. PUNCTUATION	115
A) Introduction. B) The Period. C) The Question Mark and the Exclamation Point. D) The Comma. E) The Semicolon. F) The Colon. G) The Dash. H) Parentheses and Brackets. I) Quotation Marks.	
CHAPTER 22. MECHANICS	125
A) Capitals. B) Abbreviations. C) Numbers. D) Italics. E) Compounds. F) Syllabication. G) The Apostrophe. H) Manuscript. J) The Investigative Paper.	
 CHAPTER 23. ECONOMY	147
A) Wordiness. B) Elliptical Clauses.	

CONTENTS

xv

CHAPTER 24. SUBORDINATION.....	Page 149
A) Emphasis by Subordination. B) Correction of the Comma Splice by Subordination. C) Combination of Choppy Sentences. D) The Stringy Sentence. E) Upside-Down Subordination. F) Subordination by Means of Verbals.	
CHAPTER 25. VARIETY.....	152
A) Variety of Sentence Types. B) Variety of Sentence Beginning. C) Verbals in Initial Position. D) Repetition of Words and Sounds. E) Reference of Pronouns.	
CHAPTER 26. PARALLELISM.....	159
A) Parallel Structure. B) Misleading Parallelism. C) Correlatives.	
CHAPTER 27. EMPHASIS.....	161
A) Introduction. B) Emphasis through Structure. C) Emphasis by Position. D) Miscellaneous Methods of Emphasis.	
CHAPTER 28. DICTION.....	166
A) Preciseness. B) Appropriateness. C) Suggestiveness. D) Emphasis in Diction. E) Increase in Vocabulary. F) Glossary of Faulty Usage.	
CHAPTER 29. SPELLING.....	187
A) General Directions. B) Plurals of Nouns. C) Possessives and Contractions. D) Suffixes. E) Prefixes. F) Order of <i>ie</i> and <i>ei</i> . G) Verbs in <i>-ceed</i> and <i>-cede</i> and the Corresponding Nouns. H) Misspelling Caused by Mispronunciation. J) Omission of Silent Letters. K) Words with Tricky Vowels. L) Superficial Similarities. M) Related Words with Minor Differences. N) Miscellaneous Words. O) <u>Test List</u> . P) <u>Supplementary Test List</u> . Q) Words with Two Spellings.	
CHAPTER 30. CORRESPONDENCE.....	208
A) Stationery. B) The Heading. C) The Inside Address. D) The Salutation. E) The Body. F) The Complimentary Close. G) The Signature. H) Sample Business Letters. J) The Outside Address. K) Formal Social Notes.	
APPENDIX I. CONJUGATION OF THE VERB.....	225
A) Conjugation of <i>To Hide</i> . B) Conjugation of <i>To Be</i> . C) Progressive and Emphatic Conjugations.	
APPENDIX II. ROMAN NOTATION.....	228
APPENDIX III. SUPPLEMENT TO CHAPTER 22, § J ("THE INVESTIGATIVE PAPER").....	229
APPENDIX IV. THE PARAGRAPH.....	235
APPENDIX V. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES.....	236
INDEX.....	239

TO THE STUDENT

The further your education progresses, the more complicated your knowledge and thinking become. Accordingly, you must constantly develop your means of expression. For instance, you would now find the childish sentences of your early school days woefully inadequate: "I see a cat. The cat is black. I see a dog. The dog sees the cat. Etc." If your powers of communicating ideas do not keep pace with the increase in your knowledge, you will be greatly handicapped—just as, if a man had absolutely no method of making himself understood, he would derive little benefit from the best training in law or engineering. Other things being equal, the person who can express himself effectively has a tremendous advantage over the one who lacks such ability.

Not only must writing and speech contain the meaning to be conveyed, but they should be clear immediately. If the reader or hearer must make special effort to determine the sense, his attention is distracted from the line of thought. For example, ukanproblemakouthissentensifutridtoored aholbookriterinthisformuwoodgivupindisgust. ["For example, though you can probably make out this sentence, you would give up in disgust if you tried to read a whole book written in this form."] Inasmuch as the writer or speaker must use a vehicle of expression that can be easily and quickly interpreted by the reader or hearer, the civilized peoples have found it necessary to develop standard systems consisting of such factors as words, grammatical relationships, punctuation, and rhetorical principles. The English language in its present form is a highly effective instrument of expression, but, like a pipe organ, must be given special attention if one is to learn to handle it well. *A Writer's Manual* attempts to formulate current English usage for you as clearly and simply as possible.

Besides clearness, there are various other important considerations in the use of language. Even those grammatical errors that do not obscure the meaning, such as "he don't," tend to cause distraction; in other words, like static in radio, they interfere with reception. Moreover, a person is judged to a great extent by the manner in which he talks and writes. One who employs clear, correct, and forceful English immediately inspires confidence, whereas one who expresses himself poorly is subject to the suspicion that he is also deficient in general ability and in the com-

mand of his subject. Finally, everybody who wishes to become well educated should be prompted by personal pride to want to use his mother tongue correctly and effectively.

The close correlation between proficiency in English and ability in other fields has recently been substantiated by definite investigations. In a study by Professor Newton J. Aiken, Director of the Placement Bureau, State College of Washington,¹ the scores made by two hundred representative entering freshmen in an English classification test were compared with the scores of the same students in a psychological examination (often called "intelligence test"), and the correlation was $.84 \pm .013$ (as close a correlation as is normal between two psychological tests given to the same group). The ratings in each of these tests were then compared with the grades made by the same persons in all courses in their first year in college, and the correlation of the English test was even a little higher than that of the psychological test. In other words, an English test given at entrance to college seems to have as high predictive value for all subjects of study as does a general intelligence test. To be sure, in both tests there were some exceptions in the comparisons: a few persons rated significantly higher or lower in their first year's general record than they had in the English and the psychological tests at entrance. So great a majority, however, had the same or nearly the same comparative rating in the English test as in the first year's record as to suggest that a student can not afford to be indifferent about his use of English. A person who writes badly must overcome a serious prejudice in regard to his general ability, his training, and the care and accuracy with which he does his work. Because one must use language almost constantly, a poor command of English is like a large neon sign blazing to the world, "This person seems to be stupid, inadequately educated, or careless."

Frank Leroy Manning reached a similar conclusion: "An analysis of standard tests given to entering freshmen has shown that a general intelligence test and an English test seem to be more significant in predicting success in college than . . . tests in other subjects. . . . The psychological and the English tests will give a very good prediction. . . . The high correlation between the psychological and the English tests shows that they test much of the same thing."² Professor Arthur N. Cook, on

¹ "A Comparison of an English Classification Test and a Psychological Examination at the College Level," *Research Studies of the State College of Washington*, VI (1938), 121-25.

² "How Accurately Can We Predict Success in College?" *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XIV (1938), 35-38.

studying the cases of students who did poor work in history at Temple University, became convinced that "the fundamental cause for the lack of success in college is the inability of the student to read and write."¹ Johnson O'Connor, Assistant Professor of Industrial Research, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, who tested the vocabularies of hundreds of people, stated his findings as follows: "An extensive knowledge of the exact meanings of English words accompanies outstanding success in this country more often than any other single characteristic which the Human Engineering Laboratories have been able to isolate and measure."²

That a good command of language is important in social intercourse and in such activities as journalism, literary writing, law, teaching, lecturing, preaching, politics, and stenography is too obvious to require discussion. It is also essential in medicine, pharmacy, business, research, engineering, social work, and other vocations for which a college education is a necessary or desirable preparation, inasmuch as such pursuits require frequent writing and public or semi-public speaking. Because of limited space, quotations from only a few prominent persons in representative fields can here be given. Benjamin M. Anderson, Jr., Economist of the Chase National Bank of the City of New York, said in an address at the Annual Alumni Dinner of the School of Business, Columbia University, on April 30, 1934:

The four years spent in a school of business ought to give the student a mastery of the English language, of the art of speaking and writing English in no way inferior to that which the general college course gives—and I say this from the standpoint of the practical needs of the business man. The ability to write a good letter, courteous in tone, with a nice adaptation of words to ideas, with a sure sense of the effect of the letter upon its recipient, conveying precisely the information it means to convey, wasting no words, correct grammatically and rhetorically—this ability is no less important as a business asset than as an element in general culture. The ability to write clean-cut and clear reports and memoranda is similarly a great asset. The ability to speak well in informal conversation, in the semi-formal business conference, or standing on one's feet at a dinner or luncheon, or in public address, is a first-rate business asset.³

George Watkin Evans, Consulting Coal Mining Engineer, Seattle, Washington, stated in a talk before the students of the School of Mines and Geology of the State College of Washington on April 20, 1928:

¹ "The High School Student and Freshman History," *Historical Outlook*, XXII (1931), 228.

² "Vocabulary and Success," *Atlantic Monthly*, CLIII (1934), 160.

³ "Education for Business and Banking," *Chase Economic Bulletin*, XIV (1934), May 1, p. 9. Used with permission of the Chase National Bank of the City of New York.

To be successful as a mining engineer, you must have a command of English equal to that used by the successful business man. You will be called upon to present your ideas orally to boards of directors, men who probably know little or nothing about mining, but good business men who measure other men very largely by the style of English used. Also in writing reports for your companies, you will be judged largely by your choice of words and their arrangement. Hence make it a point early in your career to acquire a command of the English language that will enable you to express yourself clearly and concisely, either in oral form or in writing.

James Bryant Conant, famous American chemist and now president of Harvard University, made the following statement:

Many young men do not realize how badly they write. When they leave college, their lack of skill in this respect is often a great handicap which manifests itself as much in an industrial organization as in professional life.¹

A leading newspaper, the *Chicago Tribune*, wrote editorially:

Pedagogues disagree about the emphasis to be placed upon many school subjects, . . . but so far as we know there is substantial agreement on the importance of instruction in English. It is remarkable, then, that a higher standard of accomplishment has not been set. In the universities teachers complain that students cannot express themselves clearly by word of mouth or on paper, are deficient in grammar, and regard punctuation as something which need not concern them. . . . It is our experience that, even among those who expect to earn a living by writing, the rudiments of English frequently have not been learned. . . . Perhaps . . . the emphasis in English composition is upon writing as an art rather than upon writing as a workaday tool. . . . The tendency in education is to make learning easy and pleasant; we suspect that the tendency has led to inadequate drill in fundamentals. . . . Communication of ideas is so large a part of the business of making a living that the man who knows how to phrase his thought is almost certain to be more successful than the man of equal intelligence who is inadequately trained in English.²

Professor J. L. Vaughn, Department of Engineering, University of Virginia, in an article in the *Journal of Engineering Education*³, quoted comments by over fifty representative practicing engineers, teachers of engineering, editors of engineering magazines, and chemists, whom he had invited to state their opinions concerning the importance of English to engineers and chemists. He summarized their remarks as follows: "The replies . . . show that the members of the engineering profession regard English as an important subject in any program of studies leading to a degree." The following comments are typical:

"The engineer is judged largely by his report. No matter how good his work may be, he cannot convince his superiors of the value of his recommendations if his report is bad. Poor report writing has interfered, therefore, with many an engineer's advancement."—J. Bennett Hill, Manager, Development Division, Sun Oil Company.

¹ *Report of the President of Harvard University to the Board of Overseers, 1934-35* (a pamphlet published by Harvard University—dated January 24, 1936), p. 13.

² Jan. 26, 1930, Pt. 1, p. 14, col. 2. Used with permission of the *Chicago Tribune*.

³ XXVIII (1938), 482-95. The excerpts following are quoted with permission of Professor Vaughn and the *Journal of Engineering Education*.

"The engineer who cannot write and speak *effectively* is seriously handicapped. He can rarely hope to attain executive responsibilities or a high salary. He must expect, during his lifetime, to earn a total of \$20,000 to \$30,000 less than an otherwise equally qualified engineer who has these abilities in good measure."—Philip W. Swain, Editor, *Power Magazine*, New York City.

"I might address you at length, setting forth my arguments for a comprehensive course in English grammar and composition—subjects which I consider essential, in that without mastering them the student is unable to express his thoughts properly and forcefully either in oral form or in reports."—L. K. Sillcox, First Vice-President, New York Air Brake Co.

"We hire young engineers and put them to work on the assumption that they will become leaders in the organization and will contribute creative ideas to the business. Yet too frequently they fail to get anywhere, and my observation leads me to believe that this is largely because they cannot speak or write well and lack the ease and culture that come from a knowledge of the humanities."—L. W. W. Morrow, General Manager, Fibre Products Division, Corning Glass Works.

"English is in my estimation quite as important to engineers and scientists as mathematics and physics."—D. H. Killeffer, Contributing Editor, *Industrial and Engineering Chemistry*.

"As a subject in the curriculum of an engineering school English is, at the very least, of equal importance with the technical subjects. In some respects English is the most essential."—Thaddeus Merriman, Consulting Engineer, New York City.

"A close friend of mine, who is vice-president of a large corporation, and who has had a great deal of contact with technical men, remarked one day that he would strongly recommend that courses in English be continued throughout the four years of the engineering college course."—E. G. Ackhart, Chief Engineer, Engineering Dept., E. I. du Pont de Nemours and Co., Wilmington, Delaware.

"I have talked to a great many chemical executives, and they all insist that chemists and engineers must have a good command of English and be able to express their thoughts clearly and originally."—W. T. Read, Dean, School of Chemistry, Rutgers University.

"We probably had over a hundred employment men here in Urbana during the last two years. Every one asked for men who not only knew the fundamentals and had the ability to apply them to practice, but also could express themselves clearly and concisely."—D. B. Keyes, Department of Chemistry, University of Illinois.

The foregoing opinions are typical not only of prominent business men, journalists, chemists, miners, engineers, and university presidents, but of successful people in all vocations for which college students prepare. Some freshmen, because of their lack of experience, neglect their English on the false assumption that all that is necessary for outstanding success in their life work is a knowledge of their major subjects. They fail to take into consideration that they will have to deal with people, and that they will have to communicate ideas. A few of such students begin to see their mistake when they are upperclassmen (when it is generally too late to do much about it), but they cannot fully realize their tremendous handicap until they are actually practicing their professions or other vocations.

Proficiency in the communication of thought is considered so important that most institutions of higher learning require special training in

composition. Even thus, however, the average student's courses in writing are such a small proportion of his work that college graduates in general are relatively weaker in expression than in subject matter.

The fact that principles of writing are taught in special courses should not lead you to assume that composition is something apart from your other subjects. On the contrary, thought and its expression are inseparable. Without thought, expression is impossible; and without expression, thought is practically useless. Accordingly, you should strive to carry over into your general writing and speaking the principles that you learn in your composition work. Instructors in subjects other than English frequently complain of careless form in the papers of some students; and occasionally a sophomore is almost overcome with surprise on being told that he is expected to have clearness, grammatical correctness, logical organization, and emphasis in anything besides an English theme. If you do not make permanent improvement in your writing habits, the time you spend in earning credits in composition courses will be wasted. Moreover, writing is a valuable aid—a necessity, one is tempted to say—in the development of accuracy in thinking; for good composition requires the mastery of the subject, the judicious selection of material, and the logical arrangement of the parts. If we try to set ideas down on paper, we often find that they are hazy, chaotic, or even false. "He who would write clearly," said Goethe, "ought first to think clearly." This close correlation between thought and expression is an important reason for the usual judgment that a person with slovenly habits of writing is also weak in the command of his subject.

✓ In developing your writing, aim at clearness, mechanical correctness, and effectiveness. In all three of these respects, a knowledge of certain aspects of grammar is very useful. Grammar, in general, deals with the relationship of words and groups of words in the sentence as involving accepted usage (such as parts of speech, subject, predicate, object, phrases, clauses, case, number, tense, types of sentences). Many students, however, misuse the term as including also rhetoric, punctuation, and other mechanics. Rhetoric is concerned with effectiveness of presentation (such as emphasis, variety, conciseness, organization); punctuation is the use of the period, the comma, the semicolon, the colon, the dash, the question mark, the exclamation point, parentheses, brackets, and quotation marks; and other mechanics include such matters as capitals, italics, abbreviations, and the writing of numbers. The confusion among these terms is natural, for, as will be pointed out below, grammar is the basis of punctuation and of many rhetorical principles.

A knowledge of grammar helps one to write more clearly. For example, punctuation, which is essential for clearness, is largely dependent on grammar, its main function being to aid the reader to recognize the parts of a sentence. Faulty punctuation in freshman writing is very often due to ignorance of the grammatical construction involved rather than to lack of knowledge of the rules of punctuation. Thus it is easy to learn the rules that one should not use merely a comma between two independent clauses not joined by a conjunction (the so-called "comma splice") and that one should generally avoid fragmentary sentences, but many students are unable to distinguish an independent clause from a dependent clause and to determine where the end of the sentence really is. A second important value of a knowledge of grammar is that it is necessary for the understanding of many rhetorical principles. For example, a student who can not recognize whether a sentence is simple, complex, or compound is not likely to comprehend what is meant by variety in writing (discussed in Chapter 25). A third respect in which an understanding of grammar is useful is as an aid in avoiding grammatical errors. For instance, if a person is aware that *members* is the subject of the sentence "There is forty members in my fraternity" and that the verb must agree with the subject in number, he knows that *are* should be used instead of *is*. Of course, a mere knowledge of grammar is not sufficient; it must also be *applied* to grammatical usage, punctuation, other mechanics, and rhetoric.

The grammar included in *A Writer's Manual and Workbook* is functional; that is, it is limited to points which have a significant bearing on grammatical usage, punctuation, other mechanics, and rhetorical principles in student writing. Likewise, punctuation and other mechanics are restricted to the points for which you will or should have actual use. You should obtain such a thorough knowledge of functional grammar, punctuation, other mechanics, and rhetoric that they will become almost subconscious to you, in order that later you can concentrate more upon the thought as you write. A vague impression of having once heard about dependent clauses, participles, and semicolons is not sufficient; an educated person must have instant command over these and other matters involved in writing. What would happen to the college football player who reasoned that, because he had had a little blocking and tackling in high school, he need not concern himself with these things now? The aim of the present book is such a balance between the presentation of new principles and a review of old material as will conduce toward the most rapid progress in the art of writing; and, by means of selection, the

instructor can make further adjustment to the needs of each class. In other words, you should acquire essential new principles, develop a thorough command of important points that you have already been exposed to but have not yet sufficiently mastered, and relearn necessary fundamentals which you remember only vaguely or have entirely forgotten.

To make rapid progress in writing, you should revise your themes promptly and carefully according to the suggestions of your instructor. For the explanation of the correction system, see "Revision of Themes," the first page of print. Study thoroughly every principle that you violate; do not make the same error twice. Be sure to master the rules indicated by bold-faced letters on the five pages just before the title page, inasmuch as violations of them account for perhaps ninety per cent of the errors in student writing.

Provide yourself with a good desk dictionary: Webster's *Collegiate Dictionary* (G. & C. Merriam Co., Springfield, Mass.) or *The College Standard Dictionary* (Funk & Wagnalls Co., New York and London) (one of these will probably be prescribed by your instructor). Study the preface (or introduction) of your dictionary, the table of contents (if given), and any special explanation or directions (usually near the front). For points not treated in the smaller dictionaries, consult the unabridged editions: Webster's *New International* (G. & C. Merriam Co.) or *The New Standard* (Funk & Wagnalls Co.). The most elaborate and scholarly dictionary yet produced is *A New English Dictionary*, edited by James A. H. Murray and others (Oxford University Press, 1888-1928), a work of ten large volumes. To find the right word, use Crabbe's *Synonymes* (Grosset and Dunlap, New York) or Roget's *Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases* (*ibid.*). In disputed usage Krapp's *A Comprehensive Guide to Good English* (Rand, McNally and Company, Chicago) and Fowler's *A Dictionary of Modern English Usage* (Oxford University Press) are helpful.

When you have fulfilled the composition requirement of your institution, you should not assume that your training in the use of the English language is complete. Every college student—whether he is taking a composition course at the time or not—should have constant access to a manual of writing (like *A Writer's Manual*) and a standard dictionary. If you take your education seriously, you will have frequent occasion to consult them in connection with all your college subjects and in your activities after graduation.

A WRITER'S MANUAL

CHAPTER I

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

A. THE SENTENCE

- | | |
|----------------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. John lives in Chicago. | Declarative sentence |
| 2. Where does James live? | Interrogative sentence |
| 3. Come here. | Imperative sentence |
| 4. How beautiful the clouds are! | Exclamatory sentence |

A **sentence** is a group of words expressing a complete thought. That thought may be in the form of a statement (sentence 1), in the form of a question (sentence 2), in the form of a command (sentence 3), or, occasionally, in the form of an exclamation (sentence 4). Because the chief purpose of writing and of speech is to express ideas and because those ideas are expressed in sentences, an understanding of the principle of sentence structure is fundamental.

- 1.1 The first principle is that each sentence contains these two elements: **subject** and **predicate**. The subject is usually expressed, but in most imperative sentences it is only implied or understood; the predicate is always expressed except in some answers to questions and in certain elliptical expressions. If a sentence contains but one subject and one predicate, it is called a **simple sentence**. In this chapter we shall consider only simple sentences.

B. THE SUBJECT

The **subject** is that part of the sentence concerning which something is said. The first sentence in the group above concerns John; *John* is therefore the subject of the sentence. *James*, *you* (understood), and *clouds* are the subjects of the other sentences. The subject of a sentence is usually a noun or a pronoun. At present we shall consider only the subject proper (or simple subject), postponing till the next chapter the discussion of elements frequently belonging to the subject (called **modifiers**).

C. THE NOUN

A **noun** is the name of a person, a place, or a thing. If the name refers to a particular person, place, or thing, the noun is a **proper noun** (*Woodrow Wilson, Shanghai, the Library of Congress*); proper nouns begin with capital letters. If the name belongs to all members of a group or a class of objects, the noun is called a **common noun** (*man, city, library*). A name applied to a group as a unit is called a **collective noun** (*family, jury, flock, herd*). A **concrete noun** is the name of an object which can be perceived by the senses (*bluebird, melody, velvet*). An **abstract noun** is the name of something which can not be perceived by the senses; it names some quality or condition of an object (*wisdom, truth, age*).

D. THE PRONOUN

A **pronoun** is a word used in place of a noun. The noun for which the pronoun is substituted is called the **antecedent** of that pronoun. There are the following classes of pronouns:

Personal pronouns: *I, you, his, she, it, we, them*, and so forth.

Relative pronouns (used as connectives as well as substitutes for nouns): *who, which, that, what, whoever*.

Interrogative pronouns (used to introduce direct or indirect questions): *who, which, what*. "Who called me?" "I asked who called me."

Demonstrative pronouns (used to point out certain persons or things): *this, that, these, those*. These words, however, are pronouns only when used instead of nouns (that is, without nouns): "This is my car."

Indefinite pronouns (used to refer to persons or things not definitely named): *any, one, each, some, few, all, both, none, everyone, either, neither, many*, and so forth. These words are pronouns only when used without nouns: "Both were angry."

Reflexive pronouns: *myself, himself, themselves*, and so forth. "I hurt myself." "He talks to himself."

Intensive pronouns (used to emphasize nouns or pronouns): *myself, himself*, and so forth. "I myself saw the man." "He did it himself."

E. THE PREDICATE

The **predicate** is that part of the sentence which says something about the subject:

John *lives in Chicago*.

A large number of valuable jewels *have been lost*.

Our team *has won every game this year*.

The main part of the predicate (sometimes the whole predicate) is the **verb**. In fact, there can be no predicate without a verb; and consequently, in a strict sense, there can be no sentence without a verb. A verb may be defined as a word which asserts action or existence: *come, go, jump, swim, think, consider, see* assert action; *is, live, exist* assert existence. Others can be added to each list.

The verb may consist of one word or of more than one word: *took, was taking, have taken, should have taken, should have been taken* are all forms of the verb *take*. The words which are added to the main verb *take* are called **auxiliary** verbs, the term *auxiliary* meaning "helping." The principal auxiliary verbs are the following: *be* (for the various forms of this irregular verb, see Appendix I, B), *have, had, do, did, shall, will, may, might, can, could, should, would, must, and ought*. Of this list, *have, had, do, did, and am, is, are, was, were* (forms of *be*) are not always used as auxiliaries. They frequently stand alone as verbs:

He *is* the man.

He *did* the work well.

He *had* his books with him.

F. THE COMPOUND SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

The subject or the predicate, or both, may be **compound**; that is, each may consist of two or more coordinate parts:

Compound predicate: John *sings well* but *can not play at all*.

Compound subject: *Ruth and Helen* went to the picnic.

Compound subject and predicate: *Childs, Haxler, and Parry* **qualified in the preliminaries yesterday and will compete in the finals today**.

A word used to connect the parts of a compound element (*and, but*) is a **conjunction**.

G. PUNCTUATION OF THE SERIES

- 1.2 If the series of compound elements is in the form of *a* and *b*, or *a* and *b* and *c*, no comma is used:

Ruth and Helen went to town.

Jane and Ruth and Helen went to town.

- 1.3 If the members of a two-part compound predicate are long and complicated or if (in the case of *but*) a very strong contrast is involved, a comma before the conjunction is permissible. Otherwise, however, a comma should ordinarily not be inserted in a compound element consisting of only two parts.

- 1.4 If the series is in the form of *a*, *b*, and *c*, the terms are separated by a comma; observe that for absolute clarity a comma precedes the *and*:

Yale, Harvard, and Princeton are great rivals in football.

Except in newspapers, the use of the comma before the *and* is practically universal at the present time.

- 1.5 If two words joined by *and* are not to be separated, no comma is used before the *and*. In the following sentence, the omission of the comma after *William* suggests that, as is actually the case, *William and Mary* is the name of one institution:

Harvard, Yale, and William and Mary are Eastern universities

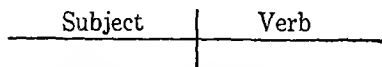
H. CAPITALIZATION AND PUNCTUATION OF SENTENCES

- 1.6 The first word of each sentence should begin with a capital letter.
- 1.7 A declarative or an imperative sentence should end with a period.
- 1.8 An interrogative sentence should end with a question mark.
- 1.9 An exclamatory sentence should end with an exclamation point.

I. DIAGRAMMING THE SUBJECT AND THE VERB

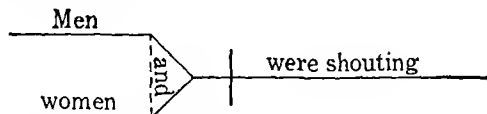
Diagramming (literally, marking out by lines) is a device for representing graphically the construction of various parts of a sentence. In diagramming, write the subject and the verb on a horizontal line (the base line); separate the subject from the verb

by a perpendicular line extending both above and below the base line:



If the subject or the verb is compound, divide the base line to accommodate as many parts as the compound element contains:

Men and women were shouting.



Men, women, and children were running and shouting.

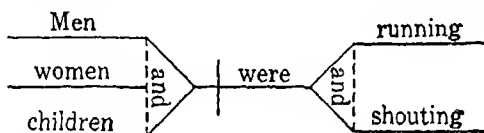


Diagram an imperative sentence, in which the subject is implied, in this way:

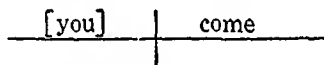


Diagram the following sentences:

1. James and I are going.
2. Who is singing?
3. Run!
4. Father has been elected.
5. You and I must go.
6. Sander can kick, run, and pass.
7. Arthur and Harvey sing and play.
8. We should have gone or should have written.
9. Who has been chosen?
10. He may be sleeping.
11. We were working and talking.
12. Raffety, Hafner, and Jones will compete.
13. Mr. Pennington might have been injured.
14. He had loved and lost.

CHAPTER 2

ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

A. THE ADJECTIVE

An **adjective** is a word which modifies a noun or a pronoun. It may point out a noun (*that* boy, *these* apples). It may describe a noun or pronoun (*Yellow* flowers are in my vase; they are *pretty*). It may limit or specify how many (*two* eggs). The adjectives *a*, *an*, and *the* are frequently called **articles**.

The adjective may modify a noun directly (for example, *that* boy, *yellow* flowers); or it may be linked to the subject by a verb. The latter construction is called a **predicate adjective**, which is one kind of **subjective complement**. (The use of a noun as a subjective complement will be discussed in Chapter 8, § B.) The verb that joins a predicate adjective to the subject is a **copulative** verb:

The house is *small*.
The man **became** *angry*.
The milk tasted *sour*.

B. THE ADVERB

An **adverb** is a word which usually modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Adverbs commonly (though not always) express ideas of time, place, manner, or degree, answering the questions *when?* *where?* *how?* or *how much?*

He swims **well** (modifying the verb *swims*).
He swims **very well** (modifying the adverb *well*).
He is **almost** exhausted (modifying the adjective *exhausted*).

C. COMPARISON

2.1 Both adjectives and adverbs have three forms known as degrees of comparison. **The positive degree is used when no comparison between objects is made:**

He swims **well**.
The house is **large**.

- 2.2 The comparative degree is used when only two objects are compared:

He swims better than I.
Your house is larger than ours.

- 2.3 The superlative degree is used when three or more objects are compared:

Of all the boys, John swims best.
That house is the largest of the three.

- 2.4 Most adjectives of one syllable and some of two syllables are compared by adding *-er* or *-r* to the positive to form the comparative and *-est* to the positive to form the superlative: *quick, quicker, quickest; pretty, prettier, prettiest*. All adjectives of three or more syllables and some of two syllables are compared by prefixing *more* or *less* to the positive to form the comparative, and *most* or *least* to the positive to form the superlative: *beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful; rigid, more rigid, most rigid*. The reason for the use of *more* and *most* with long adjectives is that the addition of *-er* and *-est* would result in awkward forms. Some adjectives have an irregular comparison:

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
bad, ill	worse	worst
good, well	better	best
little	less, lesser	least
many, much	more	most

- 2.5 Most adverbs are compared by using *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least*, with the positive degree: *quickly, more quickly, most quickly*. A few adverbs are compared by adding *-er* and *-est* to the positive forms: *soon, sooner, soonest*.

Some adverbs have an irregular comparison:

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
badly, ill	worse	worst
well	better	best
little	less	least
much	more	most
far	farther, further	farthest, furthest
near	nearer	nearest, next

- 2.6 Some adjectives and some adverbs can not logically be compared: *dead, square, now, then, there, entirely, fatally*, and so forth.

D. COMMON ERRORS

When adjectives or adverbs are used incorrectly in speech or writing, the trouble usually lies in the failure to observe one of these points: (1) an adjective can modify only a noun or a pronoun, whereas an adverb modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; (2) the comparative degree should be used when two persons or objects are compared, and the superlative degree should be used only when three or more persons or objects are compared.

2.9 *Different* is not a real comparative and should not be followed by *than*. The correct idiom is *different from*.

2.10 Certain verbs, since they cause frequent confusion in the use of adjectives and adverbs, should be noted. After a verb pertaining to the senses (*look, smell, taste, feel, sound*) use an adjective to denote a quality of the subject. Use an adverb if the word refers to the manner of the action of the verb.

The man looks angry. (*Angry* describes *man*.)

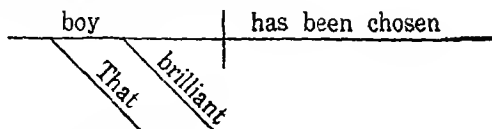
The man looked angrily at us. (*Angrily* shows his manner of looking at us.)

A good test for determining whether an adjective or an adverb should be used in such sentences is to substitute *is* or *was* (*are* or *were*) for the verb; if the adjective form can follow it without essentially changing the thought of the sentence, the adjective is usually the correct form. If the thought is changed by the substitution, the adverb should usually be employed.

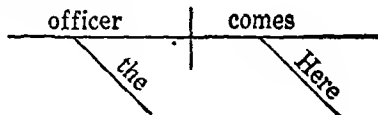
E. DIAGRAMMING THE ADJECTIVE AND THE ADVERB

Place an adjective or an adverb on a slanting line below the word which it modifies:

That brilliant boy has been chosen.

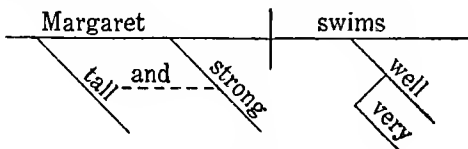


Here comes the officer!

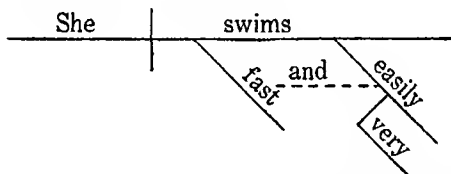


If the modifiers are compound, draw parallel slanting lines and put the connective on a dotted line between them. Put an adverb modifying an adjective or adverb on a broken line below the word it modifies:

Margaret, **tall** and **strong**, swims **very** well.



She swims **fast** and **very** easily.



If a modifier belongs to the two or more parts of a compound element jointly, attach it at a point before the parts are divided or after they come together.

Place a predicate adjective on the base line after the verb, separating the two elements by a line slanting toward the subject:

The judge remained **silent**.

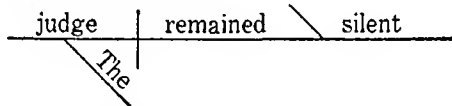


Diagram the following sentences:

1. The feeble woman walked slowly.
2. The old mine was finally abandoned.
3. Come quickly and quietly.
4. That gentle, friendly old horse must never be sold.
5. She was dressed most beautifully.
6. We shall go there tomorrow.
7. Five small boys were cheerfully singing.
8. Tired and ill, the old man collapsed.
9. My youngest sister typewrites quickly and accurately.
10. The mother and the children arrived early.
11. Both horses were blind.
12. This problem seems difficult.
13. The dinner has become cold.

CHAPTER 3

PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

A. DEFINITIONS

The author of **this story** lives in **Buffalo**.

The motto **over the door** is a line from a short poem written by **Emerson**.

With the first reading it is evident that the words in bold-faced type in these sentences modify just as adjectives and adverbs do; for example, *of this story* modifies the noun *author* by pointing out which author is meant; *in Buffalo* modifies the verb *lives* by telling where he lives. Such a group of words is called a **prepositional phrase**. A phrase may be defined as a group of related words without subject or predicate; a phrase is used as a single part of speech. A **prepositional phrase** is made up of an introductory word called a **preposition** and a noun or an element taking the place of a noun (called the **object** of the preposition), which may or may not be modified.

A **preposition** may be defined as a connecting word showing the relation of a noun or a substitute for a noun to some other word in the sentence. Some of the most common prepositions are: *around, among, across, above, about, below, behind, by, beyond, before, beside, beneath, except, for, from, in, into, of, on, out, over, to, toward, through, upon, until, under, with, without, during, concerning*.

Several words are sometimes prepositions and sometimes adverbs, such as *around, down, in, on, off, out, over, up*. They are prepositions if they have objects expressed and are adverbs if they are not accompanied by objects:

Adverb: He fell **down**.

Preposition: He fell **down** the steps.

Frequently two or three words are combined to form a preposition: *according to, as to, in regard to, in spite of, instead of, because of, on account of, out of*, and so forth.

A preposition may be modified by an adverb:

The explosion occurred **just before** noon.

B. KINDS OF PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

Prepositional phrases are **adjectival** in use if they modify nouns or pronouns:

A woman **with gray hair** was waiting at the door of the prison.

With gray hair describes the noun *woman*, and *of the prison* points out which door is meant.

Adverbial phrases most commonly modify verbs (see p. 236):

I often sleep late **on Sunday morning** (time).

Herbert Hoover was born in **Iowa** (place).

Miss Hughes types **with unusual accuracy** (manner).

Because of car trouble, we arrived late (cause or reason).

In the following sentence, *of music* modifies the adjective *fond*:

I was fond of music.

C. COMPLETE SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

The subject with its modifiers (if there are any) is the **complete** subject, the subject exclusive of the modifiers being sometimes called the **simple** subject. In the following sentences, the simple subjects appear in bold-faced type, and the complete subjects are italicized:

The tall boy is my brother.

The author of this story lives in Buffalo.

John shot a cougar.

Note. Hereafter in this book the term *subject* will be used in the sense of "simple subject."

The verb is sometimes called the **simple** predicate, and the verb with the elements belonging to it (if any) called the **complete** predicate. In the following examples, the simple predicates appear in bold-faced type, and the complete predicates are italicized:

Valuable papers **were destroyed**.

Valuable papers **were destroyed** *by the fire yesterday*.

Note. Hereafter in this book the term *predicate* will be used in the sense of "complete predicate."

D. POSITION OF THE SUBJECT

In the normal order of the English sentence, the complete subject is placed first, being followed by the predicate (that is, complete predicate). In many interrogative and exclamatory sen-

tences, however, the order is reversed or a part of the predicate is placed before the subject. In the following illustrations, the predicates are italicized:

Where is he?
How beautiful is the lake!
Have you ever seen a king?

In many declarative and imperative sentences, the normal order is changed for variety, for emphasis, or for clearness, some part or all of the predicate being put before the subject:

At nine o'clock the freshmen assembled in the auditorium.
Slowly and smoothly went the ship.—Coleridge.
That tale I simply do not believe.

Sometimes the subject is delayed by the use of an introductory *there*:

There are twenty students in this class.
 There was little rainfall last summer.

The words in bold-faced type are the subjects; *there* is called an **expletive**, which means a "filler." The student should be careful not to confuse the expletive *there* with the adverb *there*. Whereas the former has no other purpose than to permit the subject to follow the verb, the latter means "in that place." The adverb *there* sometimes stands at the beginning of the sentence. "There he is" means the same as "He is there."

E. "DUE TO—"

- 3.1 The expression *due to* should not be used to modify a verb; it is adjectival in function. In other words, *due* is an adjective—not a preposition:

Wrong: He missed school *due to* his father's illness.
 Right: He missed school **because of** (or, **on account of**) his father's illness.

At the very beginning of a sentence, *due to* is nearly always incorrect, an adverbial phrase being required:

Wrong (modifies the verb *missed*): *Due to* his father's illness, he missed school.
 Right: **Because of** his father's illness, he missed school.

In the following sentences, *due* is used correctly as an adjective:

His absence was due to his father's illness.

The distress due to unemployment was relieved by various charitable organizations.

In the first sentence *due* is a predicate adjective after the copulative verb *was*, and in the second it is an adjective modifying *distress*. See also note on page 237.

F. PUNCTUATION OF A PHRASE IN INITIAL POSITION

- 3.2 If a prepositional phrase at the beginning of a sentence is long or if it might be erroneously read with the rest of the sentence, it is usually set off by a comma:

Right: In the revival of Barrie's *The Admirable Crichton* in the season of 1930-31, Walter Hampden played the leading part.

Confusing: A short time after the news was flashed to the far corners of the earth.

Clear: A short time after, the news was flashed to the far corners of the earth.

- 3.3 If a prepositional phrase at the beginning of the sentence is short and the meaning is clear without the comma, no punctuation is required:

In 1927 my parents moved to Denver.

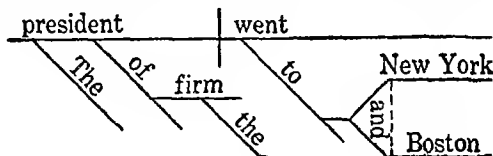
- 3.4 If the verb of the sentence precedes the subject, no comma is necessary after an adverbial phrase at the beginning:

On each side of the long driveway stands a row of poplar trees.

G. DIAGRAMMING THE PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE AND THE EXPLETIVE

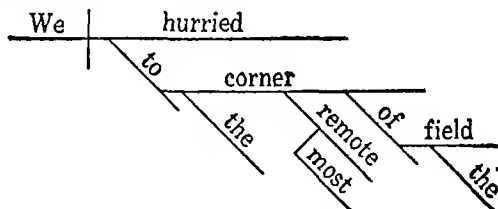
1. Place a prepositional phrase on a broken line beneath the word which it modifies, writing the preposition on the slanting line and the object of the preposition on the part which is horizontal to the base line. Notice that the line for the preposition extends beyond the point where the line for the object joins it.

The president of the firm went to New York and Boston.



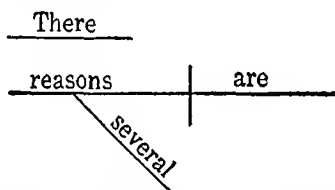
Place modifiers of prepositional phrases below the words which they modify:

We hurried to the most remote corner of the field.



2. Because the expletive *there* is merely an introductory word and has no grammatical connection with the remainder of the sentence, place it on a separate line above the base line:

There are several reasons.



Do not confuse the expletive *there* with the adverb *there* (meaning "in that place"); diagram the latter as you diagram any adverb:

There he is (or, He is there).

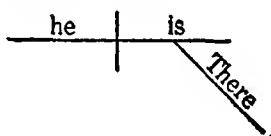


Diagram the following sentences:

1. A great deal of money was taken from the safe.
2. Four of us are going to the mountains for a picnic.
3. A very interesting hospital for old soldiers was built in Paris in 1670.
4. Two famous squares in Paris are connected by an avenue of unusual beauty.
5. The Arch of Triumph was built during the era of Napoleon Bonaparte and was decorated with scenes of his victories.
6. After the World War the body of an Unknown Soldier was buried beneath the center of this famous arch.
7. There have been several financial panics since 1880.

8. After a long cruise in the southern Pacific, Stevenson landed at Honolulu.
9. Later he was adopted by a tribe in the Samoan Islands.
10. During a previous winter he and his wife lived in the Adirondacks of New York.
11. There were twenty-five lynchings in the United States in 1930.
12. The *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* have been admirably translated into English poetry by William Cullen Bryant.
13. These two famous stories in verse are known in almost every land.
14. There she has sat for hours.
15. In 1925 there were 664,266 students in American colleges and universities
16. At the end of this street lives an eccentric old hermit.

CHAPTER 4

FRAGMENTS AS SENTENCES

A. NECESSITY OF CLEAR THINKING

The degree of clearness with which a person expresses himself in writing is one of the surest indexes of the accuracy of his thinking. Careless, lax, slipshod, foggy writing does not arise primarily from lack of training in English; rather it arises from careless, lax, slipshod, foggy thought. The close relationship between clear thinking and clear writing can not be overemphasized. **One's writing is the mirror of his mind.**

Slipshod thinking reveals itself in its worst form in imperfect sentence structure; and one of the most serious errors in writing is the fragment of thought misused as a sentence (often called the "period fault"). To think in unrelated fragments is scarcely to think at all. If a thought is to be of real value, it must be direct, precise, and complete.

B. THE SENTENCE

- The smallest logical unit of thought is the sentence. As was
- 4.1 pointed out in Chapter 1, a sentence must have a subject and a predicate expressed or implied. In other words, the sentence makes an assertion (predicate) about a person or thing (subject), asks a question (predicate) about a person or thing (subject), expresses a command (predicate) to somebody (subject usually understood), or, occasionally, makes an exclamation (predicate)
 - 4.2 about a person or thing (subject). Moreover, the predicate must

contain a finite form of the verb. A finite form is one which can assert action or existence, ask a question, or give a command (such as *take, did take, took, was taking, have taken, will take, has been taken, had taken, had been taken*).

Certain forms of the verb—called **verbals** (participles, gerunds, and infinitives)—can not be used to assert action or existence, ask a question, or give a command unless they are combined with other verbs (especially with auxiliaries, such as *am, is, are, was, were, have, has, had, has been*). For example, *taking, taken, to take* do not assert; whereas *was taking, have taken, ought to take* do assert. As will be explained in Chapters 16, 17, and 18, verbals have the functions of nouns, adjectives, and adverbs. For the present, the student should bear in mind that verb forms ending in *-ing* or *-en* (and a few others) and verb forms used with *to* can not stand alone as finite verbs.

C. FRAGMENTARY SENTENCES

The following groups of words obviously are not sentences:

1. One from one direction and one from another.
2. Dangling his legs over the edge of the dock and looking down into the water.

The first fragment has no verb and hence lacks a predicate. To be made into a sentence, it would have to be given a verb:

One **swam** from one direction and one from another.

The second group of words contains neither subject nor predicate. The verbals *dangling* and *looking*, though referring to action, do not **assert** it. This fragment could be made into a sentence by the change of the verbals into finite forms of the respective verbs and by the addition of a subject:

He **dangled** his legs over the edge of the dock and **looked** into the water.

Nearly all fragmentary "sentences" in student writing arise from a habit of chopping off a fragment of thought at the end of a sentence and setting it up as if it were complete in itself. For instance, some people write passages like the following:

Edwin sat watching the fish for a long time. Dangling his legs over the edge of the dock and looking down into the water. A pike and a sunfish swam into view. One from one direction and one from another.

The first and the third sentences contain subjects (*Edwin; pike* and *sunfish*) and finite verbs (*sat; swam*). The second and the fourth "sentences," however, as we have already seen, are merely fragments; the fact is that each of these two fragments is really a part of the sentence preceding it. Hence the proper way to correct the error in these two cases is to change the punctuation so as to combine the fragments with the sentences to which they belong:

Edwin sat watching the fish for a long time, dangling his legs over the edge of the dock and looking down into the water. A pike and a sunfish swam into view, one from one direction and one from another.

In the following passage, the second "sentence" lacks a subject:

First, I shall tell you how opium is smuggled into the country. Then bring out another point.

Accordingly, this group of words is only a fragment. The error can be corrected by the addition of a subject and the completion of the predicate:

I shall then bring out another point.

A still better revision would be to combine the fragment with the preceding sentence:

I shall first tell you how opium is smuggled into the country and then bring out another point.

Note. Occasionally fragments consist of dependent clauses without independent clauses. These will be discussed later.

D. ELLIPTICAL SENTENCES

Elliptical sentences are permissible under the following circumstances:

- 4.3 1. In commands the subject is frequently understood:
(You) please open your books.
- 4.4 2. In answers to questions the subject, the predicate, or both can often be supplied readily from the question:

Subject:

"What is Mary doing?"

"Playing the piano." (*Mary is understood*)

Predicate:

"Who is singing?"

"Mary." (*is singing understood*)

Both subject and verb:

"When did you arrive?"

"Yesterday." (*I arrived* understood)

4.5 3. Many exclamations are elliptical:

O how charming!

Hands off!

- 4.6 *Note.* A few professional writers employ fragmentary sentences under certain other conditions, but the beginner should not use such constructions. Practically all fragmentary sentences to be found in amateur writing are incorrect. If, therefore, the student feels the necessity of a fragmentary sentence to bring out the effect desired, he should indicate in a footnote that he is using the construction purposely. The safer course, however, is to avoid it entirely.

E. DIAGRAMMING TO TEST COMPLETENESS

Each of the following passages consists of two divisions separated by a period. By means of diagramming, determine whether the second part is an independent sentence, or whether it is merely a fragment belonging to the first part. If the two parts are really one sentence, punctuate accordingly; otherwise, specify that the punctuation is correct. Observe that you are not asked to diagram the first part or, if the two divisions are combined, the revised form of the passage. If you do not find both a subject and a finite verb in the second part, do not try to complete the diagram.

1. Above me stood an old Indian warrior, hideously dressed and painted. Some survival of former days.
2. I was suddenly awakened by a very peculiar noise. A large bear was standing at the entrance of the tent.
3. Two wires are strung on these posts. The first wire at a height of thirty inches and the second at a height of fifty-four inches.
4. In the "Habanera," Carmen says that love is like a wild bird. Free, rebellious, and uncontrollable.
5. We passed through several severe storms. At times our boat was even pushed backward by their violence.
6. Though he said nothing, he seemed to be very angry. Looking at me with furious glances and muttering under his breath.

CHAPTER 5

THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

A. THE INDEPENDENT CLAUSE

A **clause** is a group of words containing both subject and predicate. An **independent clause** (frequently called "principal" or "main" clause) is a group of words containing a subject and a predicate and capable of standing alone as a sentence. The italicized words in each of the following sentences form an independent clause:

1. *The youngest contestant won the prize.*
2. *A large crowd of students was at the station* when the team left.
3. Although chemistry interested me, *I decided not to make it my life work.*

Observe that in the above sentences the independent clause gives each sentence its meaning; the other elements are merely modifiers.

B. THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

A simple sentence contains only one independent clause. In other words, it has but one subject and one predicate:

Herbert Hoover is a mining engineer.

Either the subject or the predicate, or both, of a simple sentence may be compound:

Alexander and Napoleon were great generals.

Charles Evans Hughes ran for President in 1916, but was defeated by Woodrow Wilson.

C. THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

If two or more simple sentences are joined by a coördinating conjunction, the result is a **compound sentence**. In other words, a compound sentence consists of two or more independent clauses:

Simple sentences: Places do not ennoble men. Men make places illustrious.

Compound sentence: Places do not ennoble men, but men make places illustrious.—Plutarch.

In a compound sentence in the strict sense, the independent clauses are joined by a coördinating conjunction. A **coördinating conjunction** connects sentence elements of *equal* rank, whether these be clauses, phrases, or words; the chief coördinating conjunctions

are *and*, *but*, *for*, *or*, and *nor*. The conjunction, however, is often omitted. See also rule Ap. 17 on page 237.

D. PUNCTUATION OF THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

- 5.1 A coördinating conjunction joining two independent clauses is normally preceded by a comma:

The hungry waif would not enter the room, but he stood sadly looking in from the door.

John brought the car to a full stop, for his father had ordered him to drive cautiously.

- 5.2 If a compound sentence is very short, the comma may be omitted:

I am very tired but I can not go to bed.

- 5.3 If the independent clauses of a compound sentence are long and complicated, especially if there are commas within them, a semicolon before the coördinating conjunction is preferable, as in the following sentence from Macaulay's *Essay on Bacon*:

Already some parts, and not the least startling parts, of this glorious prophecy have been accomplished, even according to the letter; and the whole, construed according to the spirit, is daily accomplishing all around us.

- 5.4 If the coördinating conjunction of a compound sentence is omitted, the independent clauses are separated by a semicolon:

The hungry waif would not enter the room; he stood sadly looking in from the door.

John brought the car to a full stop; his father had ordered him to drive cautiously.

- 5.5 Transitional adverbs and phrases—like *hence*, *furthermore*, *accordingly*, *consequently*, *moreover*, *therefore*, *so* (when introducing a result-clause), *besides*, *nevertheless*, *otherwise*, *however*, *then*, *secondly*, *in fact*, *on the other hand*, *in addition*, *at least*, *on the contrary*, *in short*, *in the third place*, *for example*—are not actually conjunctions. Accordingly, a compound sentence with such a transitional expression requires a semicolon unless a real conjunction is also used (see also note on page 237):

Right: Tom was not trusted by his mother; consequently, he did not show his best side toward her.

Right: Mr. Carey is quiet and reserved; in fact, he might be called shy.

Right: I had won a lifesaver's badge, and hence I was a bit puffed up.

Note. Besides being used between the clauses of some compound sentences, transitional expressions are often employed to show the relation of a sentence to a preceding sentence or passage, or of a paragraph to the material going before.

- 5.6 Most transitional expressions are commonly treated as parenthetical elements and set off from the remainder of their own clauses by commas; but a few—chiefly *hence*, *so*, *therefore*, *then*, and *there*—are usually so closely connected with their clauses (as indicated by the lack of a pause) that the separation would be undesirable. For examples, see the illustrative sentences under rule 5.5. See also two notes on page 238.

- 5.7 Frequently a transitional adverb or phrase—especially *however*—is “buried” within its own clause, the purpose being to emphasize the material placed before the transitional expression. Such a “buried” element is ordinarily set off by commas:

Once Mr. Rust was a very rich man; now, however, he is a pauper. [*Now* is emphatic.]

Emphasis by means of a “buried” transitional expression is particularly effective at the beginning of a sentence; for examples, see the second sentence of Chapter 3, § D, and the sentence following the bold-faced portion of rule 1.3.

E. THE COMMA SPLICE

- 5.8 One of the most common of the serious errors in writing is the comma splice (frequently called “comma fault”), by which is meant the use of a comma between two clauses not connected by a conjunction. This error gives the impression that the writer does not understand what a sentence really is, or that he even lacks the ability of thinking clearly. The comma splice may be eliminated by the substitution of a semicolon for the comma, by the insertion of a coordinating conjunction, or, if the thought is not too closely connected, by the punctuation of the independent clauses as separate sentences:

Wrong: A payment of a third of the total cost has been made by the organization, the rest is to be paid on the installment plan.

Right: A payment of a third of the total cost has been made by the organization; the rest is to be paid on the installment plan.

Right: A payment of a third of the total cost has been made by the organization, and the rest is to be paid on the installment plan.

Right: A payment of a third of the total cost has been made by the organization. The rest is to be paid on the installment plan.

Note. A fourth way of correcting the comma splice (that of subordinating one of the clauses) will be discussed in Chapter 24, § B.

5.9 The student should guard against confusing transitional expressions with conjunctions:

Wrong: We had to wait a day in Milwaukee to have our car repaired, then we came on to Chicago.

Right: We had to wait a day in Milwaukee to have our car repaired; then we came on to Chicago.

Right: We had to wait a day in Milwaukee to have our car repaired, and then we came on to Chicago.

5.10 *Note 1.* A strictly parenthetical clause like the following may be set off from the remainder of the sentence by commas even if no coordinating conjunction is used:

This action, it seems to me, is an admission of failure.

5.11 *Note 2.* In the following idiom, *aren't you* is obviously not an independent clause in function, but is a part of a question implying an affirmative answer:

You are coming to my party, aren't you?

F. "RUN-TOGETHER" SENTENCES

5.12 Do not run two independent clauses together with neither punctuation nor conjunction:

Wrong: I did not work during the last three weeks before the opening of school I wanted to get a good rest.

Right: I did not work during the last three weeks before the opening of school; I wanted to get a good rest.

The error of the "run-together" sentence is most common in connection with transitional adverbs, especially with *so* when introducing result-clauses:

Wrong: I had to look after my baggage so I started to walk to the station.

Correct (though weak): I had to look after my baggage; so I started to walk to the station.

5.13 Do not try to correct a comma splice by removing the punctuation entirely:

Comma splice: Our main stop in the Far East was at Yokohama, there we got our first glimpse of the Orient as we had sometimes seen it in the movies.

"Run-together" sentence: Our main stop in the Far East was at Yokohama there we got our first glimpse of the Orient as we had sometimes seen it in the movies.

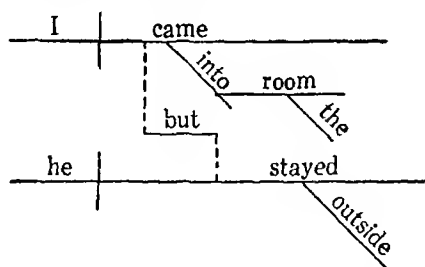
Correct punctuation: Our main stop in the Far East was at Yokohama; there we got our first glimpse of the Orient as we had sometimes seen it in the movies.

G. DIAGRAMMING THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

Each of the independent clauses of a compound sentence is diagrammed like a separate sentence, and then the verbs are connected in the manner indicated below.

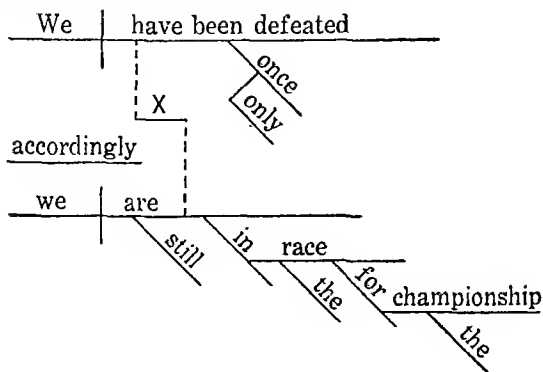
1. If there is a coördinating conjunction, it is placed on the step of the line connecting the verbs of the independent clauses:

I came into the room, but he stayed outside.



2. If there is no coördinating conjunction, an *X* is placed on the step of the connecting line. Transitional expressions like *moreover*, *besides*, and *in fact* (which are often called "sentence modifiers") are separated from the remainder of their clauses (in the manner of the expletive *there*—see Chapter 3, § G). Words like *then* (when referring to time) and *there*, however, modify the verbs directly and are diagrammed like regular adverbs:

We have been defeated only once; accordingly, we are still in the race for the championship.



I fired into the darkness of the cave; then the growls ceased.

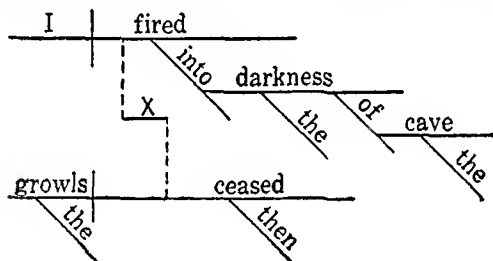


Diagram the following sentences:

1. I shall work during the summer, but my cousin will go to Europe.
2. He will never return; he has been too deeply offended.
3. Slowly the coach came to the curb; then my grandmother descended from it in state.
4. The car runs smoothly, for it has been thoroughly overhauled.
5. The deer stood for a moment at the edge of the clearing, and then it leaped into the thicket.
6. Thieves broke into the house but were frightened away.
7. A sick child was lying on a bed of rags, and a haggard woman was sobbing by the cold fireside.
8. They must not be at home, for the car is not in the garage.
9. One of the bandits darted into an alley; the other was captured at the door of the bank.
10. The frisky horses sped over the crisp snow, and we were soon at the cozy home of our friends.
11. This unfortunate man has worked hard for many years; nevertheless, his business has not prospered.

CHAPTER 6

TENSE AND PERSON

A. TENSE

The *English* verb has six tenses—

1. The **present** tense is used for present time and for general truths without reference to time:

Present time: I **am** a freshman.

General truth: Man **is** mortal.

Sometimes the present has future meaning:

I **am** going to Richmond next week.

As soon as the chairman **arrives**, the meeting will begin.

The **historical present**, which is occasionally used for vividness, narrates past events as if they were happening in the present:

The hands of the clock **seem** to be flying. It is the fatal moment. **Do we dare?** Have we the supreme moral courage?

2. The **past** tense expresses simple past time:

Last summer I **visited** England, France, and Germany.

3. The **future** tense specifies future time:

He **will be** a sophomore next year.

4. The **present perfect** tense emphasizes that the action or existence is complete at the present time (that is, that the application of the verb extends to the present moment):

Right. I **have visited** England, France, and Germany.

Wrong: I have visited England, France, and Germany last summer.

Right (past tense): I **visited** England, France, and Germany last summer.

5. The **past perfect** tense indicates that the action or existence was already complete at a time in the past:

I **had visited** England, France, and Germany before I went to Italy.

6.1 The **past tense** is sometimes incorrectly used for the **past perfect**:

Wrong: Oscar Lowry was slain near his home yesterday. He received a threatening letter a week ago, but **paid** no attention to it.

Right: Oscar Lowry was slain near his home yesterday. He **had received** a threatening letter a week ago, but **had paid** no attention to it.

Obviously, the verbs in the second sentence express time before that of the verb in the first sentence.

6. The **future perfect** tense, which is seldom used, indicates that the action or existence will be complete before a time in the future:

She **will have** done the typing before the manager will arrive.

The future perfect can often be replaced by other tenses:

When I **have finished** (equivalent to "shall have finished") my lessons, I shall go to the show.

Notice that the perfect tenses are formed with the auxiliary *to have*—the present perfect with the present tense of the auxiliary, the past perfect with the past, and the future perfect with the future.

- 6.2 **Tense may be shifted freely as required by the thought, but inconsistent changes should be avoided.** For instance, do not turn abruptly from the past tense to the historical present:

Inconsistent: The hands of the clock seemed to be flying. It is the fatal moment. Did we dare? Have we the supreme moral courage?

Use either the past tense or the historical present throughout.

B. SEQUENCE OF TENSES

- 6.3 **In an indirect statement or question preceded by a verb in the past or the past perfect tense, a special sequence of tense should be observed.** A present tense of the direct form appears as a past tense in the indirect form, a present perfect as a past perfect, and the *shall* or *will* of a future or a future perfect as *should* or *would*:

Direct (present): Where is the football?

Indirect (past): He asked where the football **was**.

Direct (present perfect): Byers **has been** absent for two weeks.

Indirect (past perfect): He said that Byers **had been** absent for two weeks.

Direct (with *will*): Bennett **will** go to Japan.

Indirect (with *would*): He said that Bennett **would** go to Japan.

The same sequence of tense is used after verbs of knowing, believing, thinking, and the like, and after such constructions as *I was sure that*, *it was obvious that*, *it was rumored that*, and *his belief was that*:

I did not know where the football **was**.

It was obvious that Byers **had been** absent for two weeks.

It was believed that Bennett **would** go to Japan.

- 6.4 If, however, the speaker or writer regards an indirect statement as a general truth, he uses the present even if the verb of saying or its equivalent is past or past perfect:

Copernicus taught that the earth revolves around the sun.

- 6.5 If the verb of saying or its equivalent is present, present perfect, future, or future perfect, the verb of the indirect statement or similar construction is the same as it would be in the direct form:

He has not asked where the football is.

He says that Byers **has been** absent for two weeks.

He will say that Bennett **will** go to Japan.

I do not know where the football is.

It is obvious that Byers **has been** absent for two weeks.

It is believed that Bennett **will** go to Japan.

- 6.6 In expressions of purpose like the following, the sequence of tenses is similar to that in indirect quotations. *May* is used after present, future, and present perfect verbs, and *might* after past and past perfect verbs:

He is working [present] that he **may** return to college next year.

He **has been** working [present perfect] since June that he **may** return to college next semester.

He worked [past] last summer that he **might** attend college this year.

C. PERSON

Personal pronouns, as the name suggests, indicate **person**. The **first** person designates the speaker or speakers (or refers to a group including the speaker or speakers): *I (my, mine, me), we (our, ours, us)*. The **second** person specifies the person or persons spoken to: *you (your, yours)*. The **third** person refers to the person, persons, thing, or things spoken of: *he (his, him), she (her, hers), it (its), they (their, theirs, them)*.

The verb shows variation of form for person to a limited extent. For example, *am* is used only for the first person, and *takes* only for the third person: *I am; he takes*.

D. SHALL—WILL

At the present time the general tendency in America is to use *will* for simple futurity (expectation) in all persons. In writing

and in formal or precise speaking, however, the observance of the traditional distinction between *shall* and *will* (see rule 6.7) is still desirable.

- 6.7 To express simple futurity (that is, mere expectation on the part of the speaker), use *shall* in the first person and *will* in the second and the third persons:

First: I *shall* be late to class.

Second: You *will* be late to class.

Third: He *will* be late to class.

- 6.8 To express determination on the part of the speaker, reverse the auxiliaries, using *will* in the first person and *shall* in the second and the third persons:

First: I *will* keep this seat. [I am determined to—.]

Second: You *shall* stay at home. [I request that you stay—.]

Third: He *shall* stay at home. [I request that he stay—.]

In polite requests, *shall* is often softened to *will*:

The agents *will* send reports on the first of each month.

- 6.9 To express determination (or persistence) on the part of the subject, however, use *will* in the second and the third persons (with a strong accent on the auxiliary in speaking):

He *will* leave his clothes on the floor.

- 6.10 To express willingness or a promise in the first person, use *will*:

I *will* pay you next week. [I promise to—.]

Note. In order to systematize the above rules, remember that *shall* is used in only two situations: simple futurity in the first person, and determination on the part of the speaker in the second and the third persons; in all other situations *will* is the proper auxiliary. The only situation that causes difficulty is simple futurity in the first person, where the tendency is to substitute *will*.¹

¹ A knowledge of the original meanings of *shall* and *will* helps one to remember the present traditional distinctions. *Will* meant "to will, wish, desire," and hence readily took on the conceptions of determination on the part of the subject (in all persons), willingness, and promise; the function of simple futurity in the second and the third persons is also closely related, inasmuch as

6.11 In questions, employ the auxiliary anticipated in the answer :

Simple futurity: Shall you be in your office this afternoon? [Answer: I *shall*;
or, I *shall* not.]

Willingness: Will you meet me at the library after dinner? [Answer: I *will*;
or, I *will* not.]

(Obviously, in the third person the auxiliary is always the same in a question as it would be in a declarative sentence, inasmuch as the anticipated answer is in the same person.)

6.12 In an indirect quotation, retain the auxiliary used in the direct form of the quotation. In other words, if the subject of the indirect quotation is the same as that of the verb of saying, use *shall* for simple futurity:

Direct: You say, "I *shall* stay." [Simple futurity]

Indirect: You say that you *shall* stay.

Direct: He says, "I *shall* stay."² [Simple futurity]

Indirect: He says that he *shall* stay.

Direct: Rodgers says, "Harman *will* stay." [Simple futurity]

Indirect: Rodgers says that Harman *will* stay.

If the verb of saying is past or past perfect, *should* or *would* is required in the indirect quotation instead of *shall* or *will* (see rule 6.3):

Direct: He said, "I *shall* stay." [Simple futurity]

Indirect: He said that he *should* stay.

Direct: Rodgers said, "Harman *will* stay." [Simple futurity]

Indirect: Rodgers said that Harman *would* stay.

E. SHOULD—WOULD

6.13 *Should* is used in all persons to express obligation, improbable condition, or reasonable expectation:

Obligation: I [or You or He] *should* study this evening.

Improbable condition: If you *should* slip, you would fall a thousand feet.

a person does what he desires to do, provided that he is not prevented. *Shall*, which originally expressed obligation, compulsion, or command, still has this meaning in its use for determination on the part of the speaker in the second and the third persons; *shall* with the function of simple futurity in the first person may be explained as an extension of its usage in cases in which the will is not involved at all (for example, "I *shall* be fined" and "I *shall* be tired by evening") to instances in which the exercise of the will is not stressed (for example, "I *shall* go to the library after dinner").

Reasonable expectation: This **should** be enough gasoline to take us to the next town.

- 6.14 **Would** is used in all persons to express a customary past action or a wish:

Customary action: I [or You or He] **would** fish for hours without getting a bite.

Wish: **Would** that I could go to Europe next summer!

- 6.15 In meanings other than those covered by the two preceding rules, *should* and *would* conform to the distinctions between *shall* and *will*. Notice particularly that, with *like* as used in the following example, the proper auxiliary for the first person is *should*:

First person: I **should** like to be a great painter. (Obviously the writer does not mean "I am determined to like" or "I am willing to like.")

Second or third person: He **would** like to be a great painter.

CHAPTER 7

NUMBER

A. NUMBER OF NOUNS

A noun naming but one person or thing is **singular** in number; one naming two or more persons or things is **plural**.

When in doubt concerning the plural of a noun, consult the dictionary. The following rules, however, are helpful:

- 7.1 Most nouns not ending in a sibilant (*s, z, x, sh, ch*) form their plurals by adding *s* to the singular: *clerk, clerks; tree, trees; problem, problems; Smith, the Smiths*.
- 7.2 Most nouns ending in a sibilant (*s, z, x, sh, ch*) form their plurals by adding *es*: *loss, losses; box, boxes; church, churches; Jones, the Joneses*.
- 7.3 Common nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant (or by *qu*) change the *y* to *ie* and add *s*: *fly, flies; lily, lilies; soliloquy, soliloquies*. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a vowel retain the *y* in the plural: *boy, boys; valley, valleys*.
- 7.4 Most proper nouns ending in *y* merely add *s* to form plurals: *Henry, the eight Henrys; Mr. Kelly, the Kellys*.
- 7.5 Many nouns ending in *f* or *fe* change the *f* or *fe* to *ves* to

form the plural: *leaf, leaves; wife, wives; shelf, shelves*. Among the exceptions are: *belief, beliefs; chief, chiefs; dwarf, dwarfs; hoof, hoofs; roof, roofs*. The spelling always conforms to the pronunciation.

- 7.6 Some nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant have plurals in *es*, the plural forms of the main ones being as follows: *dominoes* (when used as the name of a game), *echoes, heroes, jingoes, mosquitoes, negroes, noes, potatoes, tomatoes, tornadoes, torpedoes*. The following add either *es* or *s*: *buffaloes* (or *buffalos*), *calicoes* (or *calicos*), *cargoes* (or *cargos*), *halos* (or *haloes*), *mementos* (or *mementoes*), *motatoes* (or *mottos*), *porticoes* (or *porticos*), *volcanoes* (or *volcanos*), *zeros* (or *zeroes*). Most other nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant (including all musical terms ending in *o*) add only *s*: *altos, banjos, cantos, casinos, dynamos, octavos, pianos, provisos, quartos, solos, sopranos*. (All nouns ending in *o* preceded by a vowel add only *s*: *curios, embryos, radios*.)
- 7.7 A few nouns have plurals in *en*: *ox, oxen; brother, brethren* (usually *brothers*); *child, children*.
- 7.8 The following nouns form their plurals by an internal change of vowel: *man, men; foot, feet; goose, geese; tooth, teeth; louse, lice; mouse, mice*. Compounds of *man* (except *Norman*) have *men* in the plural: *woman, women; chairman, chairmen; Englishman, Englishmen; saleswoman, saleswomen*. If a noun ending in *man* is not a compound of the noun *man* ("human being"), it merely adds *s*: *Ottoman, Ottomans; talisman, talismans*.
- 7.9 A few nouns have the same forms for the plural as for the singular: *deer, deer; sheep, sheep; Chinese, Chinese*.
- 7.10 Many nouns borrowed from other languages retain the foreign plurals: *basis, bases; nebula, nebulae; phenomenon, phenomena; radius, radii*. Some have both a foreign and an anglicized form: *curriculum, curriculum's and curricula; formula, formulas and formulae; index, indexes and indices*.
- 7.11 Most compound nouns form their plurals by changing the principal part: *bookstore, bookstores; mother-in-law, mothers-in-law; passer-by, passers-by*. Words compounded with *ful* are exceptions: *spoonful, spoonfuls*. Some compound nouns change both parts: *manservant, menservants*.
- 7.12 If a letter, figure, symbol, or word is regarded merely as such and not as an idea, its plural is formed by the addition of *'s*: His *o's* look like *o's*, and he uses too many *and's*.

B. NUMBER OF PRONOUNS

A pronoun which refers to but one individual is in the **singular** number: *I (my, mine, me), you (your, yours), he (his, him), she (her, hers), it (its)*. A pronoun which refers to two or more individuals is **plural**: *we (our, ours, us), you (your, yours), they (their, theirs, them)*.

C. AGREEMENT OF THE PRONOUN WITH ITS ANTECEDENT

The **antecedent** is the noun (or substitute for a noun) to which the pronoun refers.

- 7.13 A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in person, gender, and number; that is, the pronoun must be of the same person, gender, and number as the antecedent. The most important part of this rule is that a pronoun agrees with its antecedent in **number**.
- 7.14 *Each, every, everything, everybody, everyone, anybody, anyone, somebody, someone, one, either, neither, man, person, kind, sort, and similar words are singular. This rule also applies to each and every when used as adjectives.*

The chief danger point in agreement of pronoun and antecedent lies in the third person singular, especially in connection with the words listed in the preceding paragraph:

Wrong: Everyone should do their duty.

Right: Everyone should do **his** duty.

Wrong: Neither of the boys washed their ears.

Right: Neither of the boys washed **his** ears.

Wrong: A person should be careful how they drive.

Right: A person should be careful how **he** drives.

Wrong: Each hunter brought their dog.

Right: Each hunter brought **his** dog.

- 7.15 When a singular pronoun is so used as to imply persons of both sexes, the masculine form is ordinarily sufficient:

Awkward: Each member of the English class was asked to bring his or her notebook.

Better: Each member of the English class was asked to bring **his** notebook.

The use of the feminine pronoun in the following example implies that the club consists entirely of girls or women:

Each member of the club was asked to bring **her** mother as a guest.

D. NUMBER OF THE VERB

The verb forms in which the corresponding singular and plural differ are written in bold-faced type in the following partial conjugations. (In the future tense, the past perfect tense, and the future perfect tense, the singular forms are the same as the corresponding plural forms.)

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Present Tense</i>	
I take, am taken	We take, are taken
You take, are taken	You take, are taken
He, she, it takes , is taken	They take, are taken
<i>Past Tense</i>	
I took, was taken	We took, were taken
You took, were taken	You took, were taken
He, she, it took, was taken	They took, were taken
<i>Present Perfect Tense</i>	
I have taken, have been taken	We have taken, have been taken
You have taken, have been taken	You have taken, have been taken
He, she, it has taken, has been taken	They have taken, have been taken

Observe that the only instances in which the corresponding singular and plural forms of most verbs (as illustrated by *to take*) differ are the third person of the present and the perfect tenses (*takes, take; is, are taken; has, have taken; has, have been taken*) and, of the forms with *to be*, the first person of the present (*am, are taken*), the first person of the past (*was, were taken*), and the third person of the past (*was, were taken*). Of these forms, the only ones that cause much trouble are those in the third person.

When *to be* is an independent verb, it has the same forms as when used as an auxiliary. Some auxiliaries—as *can, may, shall, will*—do not vary their forms for number at all, but *to have* and *to do* follow the example of *to take* (*to have* contracting *haves* to *has*):

<i>Present Tense</i>	
I can, may; have, do	We can, may; have, do
You can, may; have, do	You can, may; have, do
He, she, it can, may; has , does	They can, may; have , do

E. AGREEMENT OF THE VERB WITH THE SUBJECT

7.16 A verb agrees with its subject in person and number:

Singular: A dog barks.

Plural: Dogs bark.

- 7.17 1. A noun intervening between the subject and the verb should not be permitted to govern the verb:

Wrong: The supply of books and magazines have been ordered.

Right: The supply of books and magazines **has** been ordered.

- 7.18 Note particularly that the number of the subject is not affected if parenthetical expressions are joined to it by such words as *including*, *like*, *accompanied by*, *with*, *together with* and *as well as*:

Wrong: John, as well as his mother and his sisters, have come.

Right: John, as well as his mother and his sisters, **has** come.

If in doubt about the number of the verb, test the construction by omitting the intervening expression:

Wrong: The supply have been ordered; John have come.

Right: The supply **has** been ordered; John **has** come.

- 7.19 2. The use of *don't* with a subject in the third person singular (*he*, *she*, *it*, or a singular noun) is a vulgarism:

Illiterate: Professor White don't know me on the street.

Right: Professor White **doesn't** know me on the street.

Remember that *don't* is a contraction of *do not*: no one would think of saying, "Professor White do not know me." If in doubt between *don't* and *doesn't*, run through the following forms:

I do not, don't

You do not, don't

He, she, it does not, doesn't

We do not, don't

You do not, don't

They do not, don't

- 7.20 3. A compound subject consisting of singular parts joined by *and* is plural:

Wrong: Honor and friendship is still in our land.

Right: Honor and friendship **are** still in our land.

- 7.21 If a compound subject consists of singular members nearly approaching identity in meaning, a singular verb is permissible

The tumult and the shouting dies.—Kipling.

In ordinary prose, however, one rarely has occasion to use a compound subject consisting of nouns so similar in meaning that :

singular verb is proper. In case of actual identity, the singular should be used:

One person: A secretary and treasurer **was** elected.

Two persons: A secretary and a treasurer **were** elected.

- 7.22 4. A compound subject composed of singular elements joined by *or* or *nor* is singular:

Wrong: Neither Vivian nor Mary **are** coming to the party.

Right: Neither Vivian nor Mary **is** coming to the party.

- 7.23 If nouns or pronouns joined by *or* or *nor* would normally require different forms of the verb because of number or person, the verb agrees with the nearer member:

Right: Neither the father nor the sons **have** business ability.

Right: Either you or the other driver **is** to blame for the collision.

- 7.24 5. The verb must agree with the subject even if the latter follows. A particularly common error is the use of *there is* or *there was* before a plural subject:

Wrong: There **is** ten boys in my class.

Right: There **are** ten boys in my class.

Wrong: There **is** a table, a chair, and a radio in the room.

Right: There **are** a table, a chair, and a radio in the room.

- 7.25 6. If a relative pronoun used as a subject (*who*, *which*, *that*) has a plural antecedent, its verb should be plural:

Wrong: He **is** one of those bores who annoys other people.

Right: He **is** one of those bores who **annoy** other people.

- 7.26 If a relative pronoun used as a subject has a singular antecedent, its verb should be singular:

Right: He **is** the kind of bore that annoys other people.

- 7.27 7. Collective nouns are usually to be regarded as singular:

The committee **has** given its report.

The company **was** founded years ago.

The crowd **is** large.

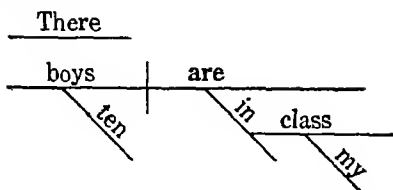
The audience **was** already assembled.

The number of spectators **was** small.

- 7.28 If the members of a collective noun are viewed individually, the noun is regarded as plural:

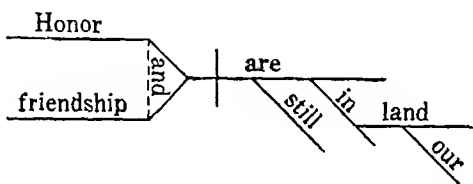
The committee **are** divided in **their** opinions.

There ^{is}
are ten boys in my class.



The diagram illustrates the plurality of the compound subject:

Honor and friendship ^{is}
are still in our land.



By diagramming, determine whether the subject and the predicate of each sentence agree in number. If the sentence is right as it stands, specify the fact; otherwise, make the proper correction.

1. The students are coming to the concert.
2. Its beauty and its freshness ~~is~~ doubly appreciated by the tourist.
3. There ~~is~~ several reasons for this.
4. A series of books were published by the company in September.
5. Here comes the bride and the groom.
6. The subject and the verb agree in number.
7. There ~~are~~ diamonds in those mines.
8. The age of the fossils were carefully studied.
9. There ~~has~~ been too many such incidents during the last year.
10. There were a tomahawk, several spears, and some arrows.
11. One chair and one table are in the room.
12. Whence comes his grief?
13. In the boat ~~was~~ a girl, two boys, and a dog.
14. The possibilities of his accomplishment were finally realized.
15. Where ~~is~~ my coat and hat?
16. Two inner tubes and a jack ~~was~~ found.
17. The heading and the address of the letter ~~was~~ correctly written.
18. There ~~has~~ been several similar cases in the past.
19. Another of my friends ~~have~~ come to this institution.
20. There ~~is~~ others in the same boat.

CHAPTER 8

FUNCTIONS OF THE SUBSTANTIVE

A. THE SUBSTANTIVE

A **substantive** is a noun or other element with the function of a noun. The substantives that have already been discussed are the noun and the pronoun (Chapter 1, § C and § D).

Occasionally an adjective has substantive function:

A word to the **wise** is sufficient.

Note. Several other substantives will be considered later.

The substantive is used chiefly as the subject of a clause, a subjective complement, a direct object of a verb, an indirect object of a verb, an objective complement, the object of a preposition, an appositive (really an adjective modifier), and a nominative of address. The subject of a clause and the object of a preposition have already been discussed (Chapter 1, § B, and Chapter 3, § A); the remainder of the constructions listed in the preceding sentence will be treated in the present chapter.

Note. The substantive may also be employed as an exclamation (for example: *Fire! Fire!*), a retained object (Chapter 14, § A), a part of the nominative absolute (Chapter 16, § C), and a part of the objective-infinitive construction (Chapter 18, § B).

B. THE SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT

John *is a good student*.

My caller *was not she*.

This book *is a dictionary*.

Notice that each of the words printed in bold-faced type is a part of the predicate (the predicates being italicized), that it completes the meaning of the verb, and that it is the same person or thing as the subject. A substantive in such a construction is a **subjective complement** ("subjective" because of referring to the *subject*, and "complement" because of *completing* the meaning of the verb). This construction is also called "predicate noun" (if a noun), "predicate pronoun" (if a pronoun), or "predicate nominative" (if a noun or pronoun). The subjective complement is used chiefly

with the various forms of the verbs *to be*, *to appear*, *to seem*, and *to become*. It answers *who?* or *what?* placed after the verb, and it is always identical in meaning with the subject.

- 8.1 If a noun or pronoun used as a subjective complement differs from the subject in number, the verb agrees with the subject—not with the subjective complement:

Wrong: The most gruesome thing were the night noises.

Right: The most gruesome thing was the night noises.

As was pointed out in Chapter 2, § A, an adjective may also be used as a subjective complement (the adjective construction being frequently called “predicate adjective”). In the following sentences, the adjectives in bold-faced type complete the verbs and describe the subjects:

The dog *is* **clever**.

The baby *seems* **strong and healthy**.

The rose *smells* **sweet**.

If there is occasion to distinguish between a substantive and an adjective in the construction of the subjective complement, the former is called a **predicate substantive** and the latter a **predicate adjective**.

C. THE DIRECT OBJECT

Some verbs are completed by a substantive in a different construction:

I *picked* the **rose**.

They *have elected* a **president and a secretary**.

He *solved* the **problem**.

I *saw* **him** yesterday.

Notice that each noun or pronoun in bold-faced type is a part of the predicate and that it completes the meaning of the verb, but that it does *not* represent the same person or thing as the subject. A noun or a pronoun in such a construction is called a **direct object**. It answers the question *whom?* or *what?* placed after the verb, and it is not identical with the subject. In fact, it is the receiver of an action *from* the subject. In other words, the subject (for example, *I*) performs an action (*picked*) on the direct object (*rose*).

The reflexive pronoun (*myself*, *herself*, *yourselves*) is an exception

to the statement that the direct object does not represent the same person or thing as does the subject:

The man killed **himself**.

Notice, however, that a reflexive pronoun used as a direct object receives an action from the subject, whereas a subjective complement is merely linked to the subject by a verb:

Subjective complement: Red Grange is a well-known football player.

D. THE INDIRECT OBJECT

A few verbs are sometimes completed by two objects:

I wrote her a letter.

He sent **me** some roses.

She made **him** a birthday cake.

Each of the words in bold-faced type shows *to whom* or *for whom* the action of the verb was performed. A word in such a construction is called an **indirect object**. It is used with such verbs as *ask*, *bring*, *buy*, *give*, *lend*, *make*, *teach*, *tell*, *write*; it nearly always precedes the direct object. Remember that it answers the question *to whom?* or *for whom?* and that it is used without a preposition.

E. THE OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT

Some verbs (*make*, *choose*, *elect*, *appoint*, *name*, *call*, and the like) are sometimes followed by both a direct object and an **objective complement**:

We elected Jack **secretary** of the class.

The President appointed him **Ambassador** to Italy.

The boy calls his dog **Sport**.

A substantive serving as an objective complement represents the same person or thing as does the *direct object*; it expresses the result of the action of the verb upon the direct object. As a test for the objective complement, try to insert the words *to be* between the two objects. If the meaning remains substantially the same (though the expression usually becomes less natural), the second noun is an objective complement:

We elected Jack (to be) **secretary** of the class.

An adjective, as well as a substantive, may be used as an objective complement:



I found the lesson **hard**.

The janitor swept the floor **clean**.

The test of inserting the words *to be* applies also to the adjective as an objective complement:

I found the lesson (to be) **hard**.

F. THE APPOSITIVE

A substantive following another substantive and describing it or pointing it out without being connected by a verb, is an **appositive**; the two substantives represent the same person or thing. The following sentences contain examples of the descriptive appositive, which is the more usual of the two types:

I shall sell my car, an old **Buick**.

Yehudi Menuhin, a ten-year-old San Francisco boy, became famous as a violinist in 1927.

In this kind of appositive, the words *who is* or *which is* (in the proper tense) can be inserted between the two substantives without change of meaning:

I shall sell my car, (which is) an old Buick.

Yehudi Menuhin, (who was) a ten-year-old San Francisco boy, became famous as a violinist in 1927.

Occasionally the appositive points out. In the following sentence, *Edward* specifies which of my brothers is meant:

My brother **Edward** is valedictorian.

Intensive pronouns (such as *myself*, *yourself*, *themselves*), which emphasize that particular persons or things are meant, are a special variety of the appositive that points out:

He **himself** did the work.

The appositive normally stands next to the substantive with which it is connected (adjective modifiers not being taken into account). Sometimes, however, other elements are placed in between:

He did the work **himself**.

Three students were suspended: **Morris Huber, Oscar Simpson, and Joseph Brown**.

An appositive modifying the subject should not be confused with the subjective complement. Remember that the latter is connected with the subject by a verb, whereas the former is not.

G. THE NOMINATIVE OF ADDRESS

A noun or pronoun in direct address is called a **nominative of address**:

Edward, have you prepared your speech?

I was wondering, Edward, whether you had prepared your speech.

- 8.2 **Observe that a nominative of address is set off by a comma or by commas.** It does not have a grammatical connection with the remainder of the sentence, but is really a parenthetical element.

H. COMPOUND SUBSTANTIVE CONSTRUCTIONS

The various substantive constructions may be compound:

He was a kind **husband and father**.

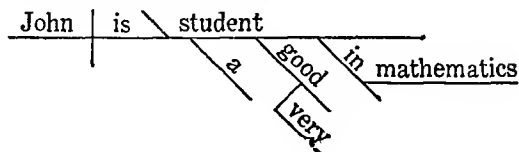
I am studying **history, sociology, English, and chemistry**.

For the punctuation of the series, see Chapter 1, § G.

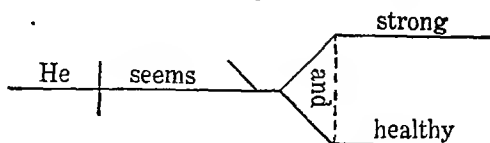
I. DIAGRAMMING SUBSTANTIVE CONSTRUCTIONS

1. A noun or a pronoun used as a subjective complement is diagrammed like a predicate adjective (as explained in Chapter 2, § E). In other words, a **subjective complement**, whether a substantive or an adjective, is placed on the base line following the verb; it is separated from the verb by a line slanting toward the subject. Such a position indicates that the word completes the verb and refers to the subject. If the subjective complement is compound, the base line is divided. If a subjective complement has modifiers, they are placed below it in the usual manner of modifiers:

John is a very good **student** in mathematics.

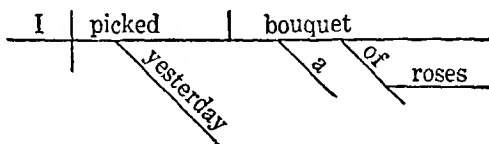


He seems strong and healthy.

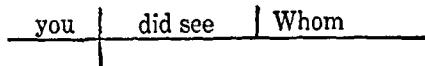


2. A **direct object** is placed on the base line following the verb; it is separated from the verb by a perpendicular line above the base line:

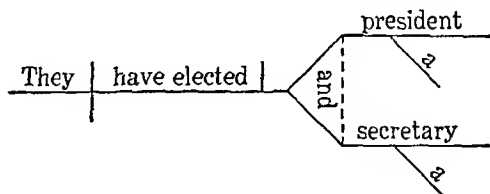
Yesterday I picked a bouquet of roses.



Whom did you see?

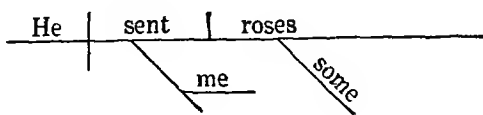


They have elected a president and a secretary.

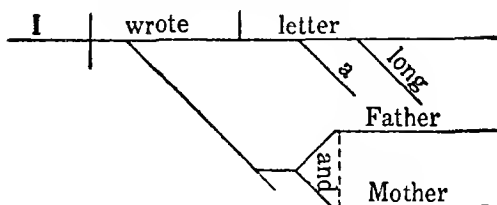


3. An **indirect object** is placed below the verb on a broken line like the one used for a phrase:

He sent me some roses.

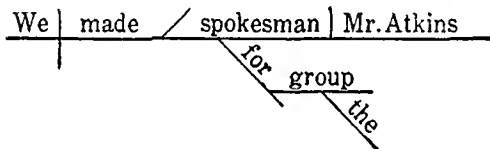


I wrote Father and Mother a long letter.

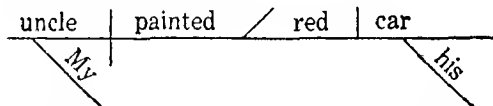


4. An **objective complement** is inserted between the verb and the direct object; it is separated from the verb by a line slanting toward the object. Such a position indicates that it completes the verb and refers to the object. (Obviously, if placed after the direct object, it could not slant toward the object without slanting also toward the subject.) The perpendicular line regularly preceding the direct object is retained and serves to separate the objective complement from the direct object:

We made Mr. Atkins **spokesman** for the group.

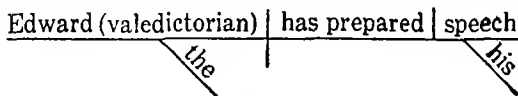


My uncle painted his car **red**.



5. An **appositive** is placed in marks of parenthesis immediately after the noun or pronoun to which it is attached. This arrangement emphasizes that the appositive adds another **name of** the same person or thing in explanation:

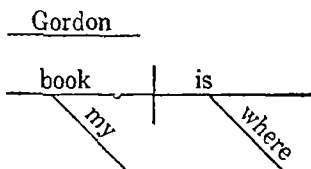
Edward, the **valedictorian**, has prepared his speech.



6. A **nominative of address** is diagrammed like an expletive. In other words, it is not grammatically connected with the re-

mainder of the sentence. Modifiers of a nominative of address (if any) are diagrammed in the usual manner of modifiers.

Gordon, where is my book?



Of the following sentences for diagramming, the first ten contain examples of the subjective complement (both noun and adjective), the direct object, and the indirect object. The remainder contain, in addition, examples of the objective complement, the appositive, and the nominative of address:

1. Ellen Terry was a prominent English actress.
2. The drought caused a loss of many millions of dollars.
3. Lafayette sent Washington the key of the old Bastille.
4. The traveler offered the chief of the tribe a silver box and a ring.
5. The lecture was too long.
6. Congress confirmed the nominations and then adjourned for the holidays.
7. Father was delighted and immediately sent me a congratulatory telegram.
8. Harvard, Yale, and William and Mary are three of the oldest American colleges.
9. A graduate of Yale has recently given Yale and Harvard large sums of money.
10. He will earn enough money, or his father will lend it to him.
11. The first concert was given by Galli-Curci, a famous soprano.
12. Mr. Brown, have you a letter for me?
13. We elected him chairman.
14. We found the house empty.
15. Are you the manager of the hotel?
16. Good books, our silent teachers, trumpet wisdom through the ages.
17. One of the passengers on the boat was Einstein, the great German scientist.
18. Young man, I have been waiting for two hours.
19. The people of Samoa loved Stevenson because of his many kindnesses to them.
20. Stevenson had won fame in 1883 with *Treasure Island*.
21. His young step-son had given him a suggestion for that splendid story about buccaneers and a treasure-hunt.
22. Fortune, the fickle jade, coaxes us on.
23. We shall never see him again, for now he hates us.
24. This book seems interesting; I shall finish it tonight.
25. Many of the lawns in the block were dry and brown, but this one was green.

CHAPTER 9

CASE

A. CASE FORMS OF PRONOUNS

Nouns and pronouns have case. There are three cases: nominative, possessive, and objective. Most of the personal pronouns have different forms for the three cases:

	<i>Nominative</i>	<i>Possessive</i>	<i>Objective</i>
	<i>Singular</i>		
First Person	I	my, mine	me
Second Person	you	your, yours	you
Third Person	he, she, it	his, her, hers, its	him, her, it
	<i>Plural</i>		
First Person	we	our, ours,	us
Second Person	you	your, yours	you
Third Person	they	their, theirs	them

In the interrogative and the relative pronoun *who*, the three cases likewise differ in form, but the singular and the plural of each case are the same:

	<i>Singular and Plural</i>		
	<i>Nominative</i>	<i>Possessive</i>	<i>Objective</i>
	who	whose	whom

- 9.1 **Caution:** Do not use the apostrophe to form the possessive of personal, relative, and interrogative pronouns:

Wrong: her's, their's, our's, your's, who's.

Right: hers, theirs, ours, yours, whose.

Distinguish carefully between *its* and *it's*. *Its* (without the apostrophe) is the possessive singular of *it*; *it's* (with the apostrophe) is a contraction of *it is*:

Wrong: The kitten has drunk *it's* milk.

Right: The kitten has drunk *its* milk.

Wrong: Its ten o'clock.

Right: *It's* ten o'clock.

- 9.2 Indefinite pronouns, however, have an apostrophe in the possessive: one's, anybody's, other's.

B. CASE FORMS OF NOUNS

In nouns, the objective case is the same in form as the nominative. The possessive case, however, differs.

- 9.3 The possessive singular is usually formed by adding an apostrophe and *s*: boy, boy's; lawyer, lawyer's; man, man's; Jones, Jones's; witness, witness's.

- 9.4 Singular nouns (chiefly proper names) ending in *s* or *z* sounds, containing two or more syllables, and not accented on the last syllable, preferably take only an apostrophe for the formation of the possessive singular if the addition of an extra syllable would make the pronunciation difficult or unpleasant. This statement applies particularly to words in which the extra *s* would bring the *s* or *z* sounds up to three (especially if in immediate succession), and to combinations in which the following word begins with *s*: Moses, Moses' laws; Jesus, for Jesus' sake; goodness, for goodness' sake. With some other proper nouns ending in *s* or *z* sounds and containing at least two syllables—and even with a few monosyllabic names—usage varies: Dickens, Dickens's novels or Dickens' novels; Keats, Keats's poems or Keats' poems. If in doubt as to whether to use an extra *s* or not, the student is advised to add it, for the addition of the *s* in the formation of the possessive singular is always permissible.

- 9.5 If a noun ending in *s* forms the possessive singular by adding only an apostrophe, the apostrophe follows, not precedes, the original *s*:

Wrong: Burn's, Dicken s.

Right: Burns' (or, Burns's), Dickens' (or, Dickens's).

- 9.6 Nouns ending in *s* in the nominative plural form the possessive plural by adding only an apostrophe to the nominative plural: boys, boys'; babies, babies'; wolves, wolves'.

- 9.7 Nouns not ending in *s* in the nominative and objective plural form the possessive plural by adding an apostrophe and *s* to the nominative plural: men, men's; children, children's; sheep, sheep's; alumni, alumni's.

- 9.8 Through the use of prepositional phrases with *of*, such awkward forms as *princess's*, *princesses'*, *witness's*, and *witnesses'* can usually be avoided.

- 9.9 In compound expressions the sign of the possessive is

generally added to the last part: son-in-law's, sons-in-law's, somebody else's.

- 9.10 To indicate that two or more nouns have joint ownership, attach the sign of the possessive only to the last: *Roth and Dehner's* cattle. *Roth's and Dehner's* would imply that the two men own the cattle separately.

C. CHIEF FUNCTIONS OF THE CASES

- 9.11 1. The nominative case is used for the subject of a verb, a noun or pronoun used as a subjective complement (being identical with the subject), and the nominative of address:

Subject: A hypocrite is a very despicable person.

Subject: Who wants me?

Subject: Where is he?

Subjective complement: He is a **man** of few words.

Subjective complement: It is **I**.

Nominative of address: Go to the ant, thou sluggard; consider her ways.—
Prov. 6:6.

- 9.12 2. The objective case is used for the direct object, the indirect object, the object of a preposition, and the objective complement:

Direct object: I saw **him** only once.

Indirect object: Father sent **me** a check last week.

Object of a preposition: Alice went to St. Louis with **Mary and me**.

Objective complement: We made **him** **manager**.

- 9.13 The objective case is also used for the adverbial noun. This is a noun employed as an adverbial modifier to express time, measure, weight, distance, and so forth:

I work forty **hours** a week.

The pit is thirty **feet** deep.

3. The possessive case is used to express ownership and various other relationships:

Henry's coat is too short.

Warren G. Harding's father was a physician.

My customers are enthusiastic about **your** products.

Observe that possessive nouns or pronouns are adjective modifiers, having the function of pointing out. In the following sentence, the word *man's* serves a double function, being at the same time

an adjective modifying the noun *coat* and a noun modified by the adjective *tall*:

The tall *man's* coat is too short.

- 9.14 It is usually illogical to attribute possession to inanimate objects:

Illogical: the chair's rungs, the gun's barrel.

Preferable: the rungs of the chair, the barrel of the gun.

- 9.15 Exceptions to rule 9.14 are *the day's work*, *three weeks' pay*, *two dollars' worth*, *the earth's surface*, and similar expressions.

A noun may serve as an adjective modifier without being in the possessive case:

This is a library book.

A noun with adjective function is called an **adjective noun**.

- 9.16 4. An appositive is in the same case as the substantive to which it belongs:

Nominative: Two members of the committee—*Mr. Bowles* and *I*—have a minority report.

Objective: He is acquainted with only three in our club: *Williams*, *Burgoyne*, and *me*.

D. COMMON ERRORS IN CASE

The student should be careful to avoid the following common errors:

1. The use of the objective case of a pronoun in the subjective complement:

Wrong: It is *me*.¹

Right: It is *I*.

2. The use of the nominative case of a pronoun in the direct object, indirect object, or object of a preposition:

Wrong: The teacher gave *we* boys a holiday.

Right: The teacher gave *us* boys a holiday.

The erroneous use of the nominative case is particularly common.

¹ In informal speaking, some authorities permit the use of the objective case as the subjective complement.

when a noun intervenes between the pronoun and the verb or preposition.

Wrong: The compliment was intended for John and I.

To test the construction, omit the intervening noun.

Right: The compliment was intended for me.

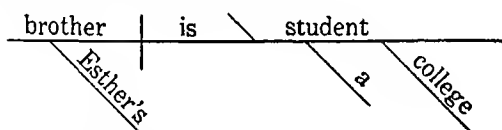
Right: The compliment was intended for John and me.

E. DIAGRAMMING THE ADJECTIVE NOUN AND THE ADVERBIAL NOUN

The adjective noun and the adverbial noun are diagrammed like the adjective and the adverb:

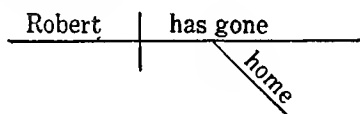
a. The adjective noun—

Esther's brother is a **college** student.

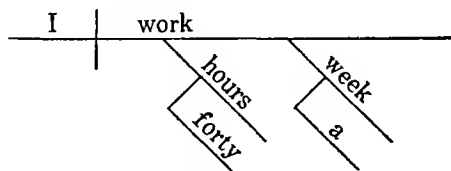


b. The adverbial noun—

Robert has gone **home**.



I work forty **hours** a **week**.



The Empire State Building, the tallest structure in the world, is 102 stories high.

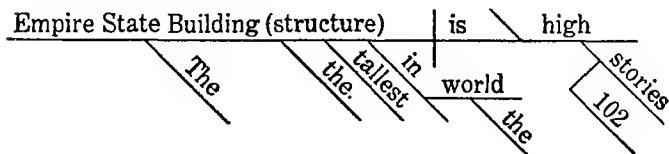


Diagram:

1. Wordsworth's poems are greatly loved.
2. Marvin's books are on the table.
3. She is twenty years old.
4. The tapestry was four feet long.
5. The crown of the Emperor of Ethiopia weighs three pounds.

F. DIAGRAMMING TO TEST CASE

By means of diagramming, determine for each pronoun whether the proper case is used. Correct all the errors.

1. Who shot the deer?
2. Who do you mean?
3. It is them.
4. The dean has called Flanigan and me to his office.
5. The coach is prejudiced against Don and me.
6. Without the help of you and I, the campaign will be a failure.
7. It was they.
8. "Who were appointed?"
"Bowen, Clay, and me." [Two sentences, one being elliptical.]

G. REVIEW DIAGRAMMING

Diagram the following sentences:

1. We did all our work and started happily on our trip.
2. The labor union has given the employer laborers with a greater degree of skill.
3. Every individual, society, and nation is considering the question of world peace.
4. In another room there were nearly fifty men.
5. The instructor assigned us too many problems.
6. Clemenceau, the war-time premier of France, was eighty-eight years old at the time of his death.
7. Mother, whom did you invite?
8. He hated every night and loved every morning, for each day was a new adventure.
9. Experience is the best teacher.
10. After an hour's walk we came to an old forest of white pine and cedar.
11. The medicine certainly tastes bitter.
12. I have been in only four states: New York, New Jersey, Connecticut, and Massachusetts.
13. The air feels cold and damp.
14. My son, keep thy father's commandment.—*Prov. 6:20*.
15. He studied all night; then he was too drowsy at the time of the examination.
16. I first studied engineering but soon changed my major to pharmacy.

17. President Hayes appointed James Russell Lowell minister to Spain in 1877.
18. He has done me a great injury, and I shall never forget it.
19. At the end of the street stood the house of the village doctor, a kind and charitable old man.
20. Ladies and Gentlemen, lend me your attention for five minutes.
21. Our stenographer has strong qualifications: unusual ability, thorough training, and five years' experience.
22. Woodrow Wilson was a man of strong convictions and dauntless courage.
23. In a small, dingy room on the fourth floor lived this poor, friendless man.
24. How can militarism be checked?
25. Bobby Jones was the winner of the four major golf championships of the world.

CHAPTER 10

THE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE

A. THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

A **complex** sentence contains one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses (frequently called "subordinate" or "secondary" clauses). A **dependent** clause is a group of words having a subject and a predicate and used as a part of an independent clause—either as a modifier or as a substantive. In other words, it serves as a single part of speech, having the function of an adjective, an adverb, or a noun.

B. THE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE

We shall first consider the dependent clause used as an adjective, commonly called the **adjective clause**. The adjective clause, like the adjective, modifies a noun or other substantive:

An **ax** **that is dull** is unsatisfactory.

The bird **that is sitting on the willow** is a turtle dove.

That is dull describes *ax*, and *that is sitting on the willow* points out which bird is meant. The meaning of the first of these adjective clauses could even be expressed by an adjective, and that of the second by an adjective phrase:

A **dull ax** is unsatisfactory.

The bird **on the willow** is a turtle dove.

The connective between the adjective clause and the substantive modified is either a relative pronoun (*who, whose, whom, which, that*), expressed or understood, or a relative adverb (chiefly *where, when, whence, whither, while, why*), the former being the more common:

Relative pronoun: I do not know the man **who** greeted us.

Relative pronoun understood: I do not know the man we saw in the lobby.

Relative adverb: This is the time **when** boys play marbles.

A relative pronoun, besides serving as a connective, has substantive function in its own clause. For example, in the first of the three illustrative sentences just above, *who* is the subject of *greeted*; and, in the second sentence, the relative pronoun understood after *man* (*whom* or *that*) is the object of *saw*. A relative adverb (sometimes called "conjunctive" adverb) introducing an adjective clause is equivalent to a relative pronoun used as the object of a preposition: *where* may mean "in which" (of place), *when* "in which" (of time), *whence* "from which," *whither* "to which," *while* "during which," and *why* "on account of which." In the following sentence, the relative adverb *where* can be replaced by the prepositional phrase *in which*:

Relative adverb: He mentioned the house **where** we first met.

Relative pronoun with preposition: He mentioned the house **in which** we first met.

C. RESTRICTIVE AND NON-RESTRICTIVE MODIFIERS

Adjective clauses are either restrictive (sometimes called "essential") or non-restrictive (sometimes called "non-essential").

- 10.1 In a restrictive adjective clause, the word modified is restricted (that is, limited) to a particular individual (or to particular individuals) or to a part of the whole:

I do not know the man **who** greeted us.

All cars **that have poor brakes** are dangerous.

In the first sentence, the particular man referred to is indicated by *who greeted us*. In the second sentence, not all cars are included in the statement, but only the ones *that have poor brakes*. Without the adjective clause, *man* might refer to some other person

than the individual intended, and *cars* would mean all automobiles in existence. In short, an adjective clause is restrictive if its omission would change the identity of the substantive modified:

Not clear (if another man might be referred to): I do not know the man.
Not true: All cars are dangerous.

10.2 **A non-restrictive adjective clause adds an idea not necessary to the identity of the substantive modified:**

William Howard Taft, who was President of the United States from 1909 to 1913, was Chief Justice during the latter part of his career.
Her mother, whom I have never seen, has been an invalid for ten years.

In these two examples, the adjective clauses do not restrict or point out; *William Howard Taft* and *her mother* already refer to particular individuals. In other words, *who was President of the United States from 1909 to 1913* and *whom I have never seen* merely add information; the omission of the adjective clause would not change the meanings of the words modified:

William Howard Taft was Chief Justice during the latter part of his career.
Her mother has been an invalid for ten years.

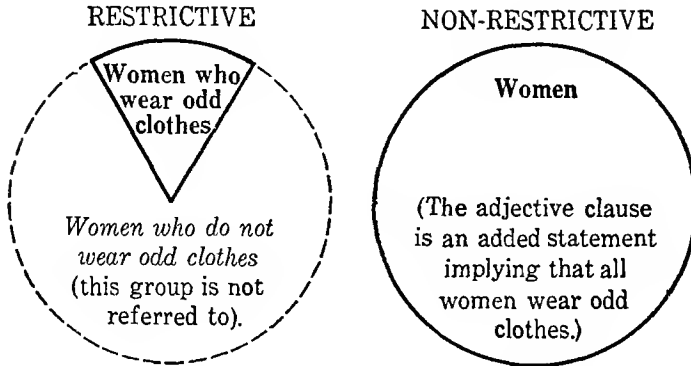
10.3 **Non-restrictive clauses are set off by commas; restrictive clauses are not set off by any punctuation.** The reason for the distinction is that non-restrictive clauses are almost parenthetical in nature, whereas restrictive clauses are very closely connected with the words on which they depend. In the following sentence, the adjective clause obviously is restrictive:

Women who wear odd clothes are not popular.

The statement of the independent clause is not intended to include all women, but only the ones *who wear odd clothes*. If the adjective clause were set off by commas, the implication would be that no women are popular, and that all wear odd clothes.

Wrong: Women are not popular.
Wrong: Women, who wear odd clothes, are not popular.

The difference in meaning is indicated graphically by the following illustrations:



- 10.4 The rules for the punctuation of adjective clauses apply also to other adjective modifiers.

Adjectives, adjective nouns (including possessives), and adjective prepositional phrases are usually restrictive:

The blue car belongs to me.

The student's work is careless.

The bird on the willow is a turtle dove. (*On the willow* points out which bird is meant.)

Occasionally, however, these elements are non-restrictive:

Courteous and enthusiastic, this teacher has endeared himself to students and colleagues. (*Courteous and enthusiastic* does not indicate which teacher is meant.)

- 10.5 Appositives that point out (including intensive pronouns) are restrictive and hence should not be set off by commas:

The poet Burns wrote many simple and homely lyrics. (*Burns* indicates which poet is meant.)

The president himself was to blame for the failure of the bank.

- 10.6 On the other hand, descriptive appositives, which are the more frequent, are non-restrictive and hence should be set off:

Burns, a Scotch poet, wrote many simple and homely lyrics.

My youngest sister, Ellen, is sick.

- 10.7 In sentences like the following example, the appositive may be either restrictive or non-restrictive, according to the meaning intended:

Restrictive: My sister Ellen is sick. [*Ellen* points out which of my sisters is meant, the omission of the commas implying that I have more than one sister.]

Non-restrictive: My sister, Ellen, is sick. [Here the appositive does not restrict or point out, the commas implying that I have only one sister who might be meant.]

- 10.8 If a non-restrictive expression is complicated, especially if it contains commas within itself, it should be set off by dashes:

Confusing: My three sisters, Margaret, Ruth, and Grace, are still in high school.

Clear: My three sisters—Margaret, Ruth, and Grace—are still in high school.

Slightly confusing: Lindbergh, modest, daring, and birdlike, is teaching young pilots to conquer the air.

Immediately clear: Lindbergh—modest, daring, and birdlike—is teaching young pilots to conquer the air.

- 10.9 If an appositive (either simple or complicated) comes at the end of the sentence and the preceding portion serves as a formal introduction, either a colon or a dash may be used, the former being the more common:

Two famous musicians died in the first half of 1931: Nellie Melba, Australian soprano, and Eugene Ysaye, Belgian violinist.

- 10.10 A period or a semicolon should not be used to separate an appositive from the noun modified:

Wrong: Wiedemann is Elizabeth's schoolmaster husband. A kind-hearted, well-meaning man.

Wrong: Wiedemann is Elizabeth's schoolmaster husband; a kind-hearted, well-meaning man.

Right: Wiedemann is Elizabeth's schoolmaster husband—a kind-hearted, well-meaning man.

- 10.11 When *such as* introduces a "partial" appositive—that is, one or more examples—a comma is generally placed before *such* (sometimes a dash) and no punctuation after *as*:

I have had three years' experience in general office work, *such as* typing letters, filing papers, and making appointments.

- 10.12 If an appositive or a "partial" appositive is introduced by *namely* (or *viz.*), *that is* (or *i.e.*), *for example* (or *e.g.*), or *for instance*, it is punctuated as follows: After the transitional expression, a comma is used (cf. rule 5.6). Before the transitional word or phrase, a dash or a colon is desirable (see rules 10.8 and 10.9), although before *that is* some writers use a semicolon even if the following element is not an independent clause. Examples follow:

Right: Some famous writers—for example, John Keats—died before they were thirty years of age.

Right: Only one president of the United States was under forty-five at the time of his first inauguration: namely, Theodore Roosevelt.

Permissible: *Such as* frequently introduces a "partial" appositive; that is, one or more examples.

For another example with *that is*, see the form of rule 10.11.

Note. When introducing independent clauses, the transitional expressions mentioned in rule 10.12 are normally preceded by the semicolon (see rule 5.5) or the period:

I have several good reasons for resigning from the committee; for instance, the work requires more time than I can afford to spend on it.

D. CASE OF THE RELATIVE PRONOUN

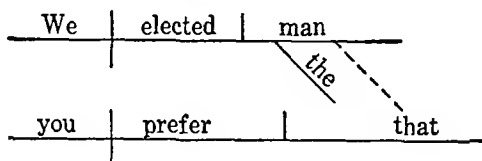
- 10.13 The case of a relative pronoun, like that of a personal pronoun, is determined by the function of the connective in its own clause, not by the case of the antecedent. In the first sentence below, the relative pronoun serves as the subject of its clause, in the second as the direct object, in the third as the object of a preposition, and in the fourth as a possessive (or adjective) modifier:

1. People **who** live in glass houses should not throw stones.
2. The stenographer **whom** we employed yesterday is inefficient.
3. Mr. Ott, **for whom** I voted, was elected by only a small majority.
4. She is a woman **whose** society I enjoy.

- 10.14 If a relative pronoun (or an interrogative pronoun) is separated from its verb by an expression like *he said*, *do you suppose*, *they believed*, the case of the pronoun should be the same as it would be if the expression did not intervene. Such an expression may be regarded as parenthetical;

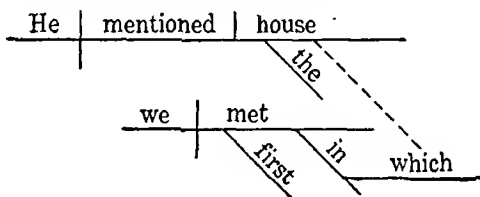
2. A relative pronoun used as a direct object:

We elected the man that you prefer.



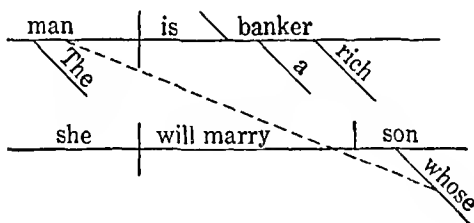
3. A relative pronoun used as the object of a preposition:

He mentioned the house in which we first met.



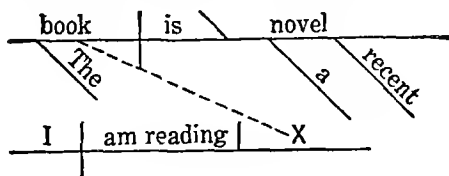
4. A relative pronoun used as an adjective modifier:

The man whose son she will marry is a rich banker.



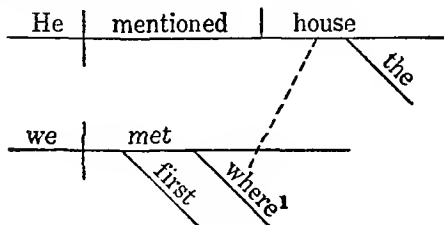
5. A relative pronoun understood:

The book I am reading is a recent novel.



6. A relative adverb:

He mentioned the house *where* we first met.



Observe that *where* in the last sentence could be replaced by the prepositional phrase *in which* (as in diagram 3 above).

If you have trouble in analyzing an adjective clause, change it to an independent sentence with a simple pronoun or adverb. The dependent clause of diagram 4 would become "She will marry his son," and that of diagram 6 would appear as "We first met *there*."

Diagram the following (observe that the internal punctuation has been omitted):

1. John Philip Sousa who died in 1932 was a prominent bandmaster for fifty-three years.
2. A man who mistreats dumb animals is despicable.
3. An intelligent person who works systematically will do well at college.
4. The League of Nations which meets at Geneva is a powerful organization.
5. Mrs. Butler who had been waiting for a clerk for twenty minutes finally grew impatient and left.
6. He who laughs last laughs best.
7. I next interviewed Harvey Metcalf who gave me considerable encouragement.
8. He will sail on June 1 for Maine where he has summer employment.
9. Shakespeare's plays which were written for the Elizabethan audiences still hold the stage today.
10. One of the most beautiful passages in the Bible is the last chapter of Ecclesiastes which describes the approach of old age.
11. The courses that I am taking this semester are difficult.
12. The modern man enjoys many comforts that kings of the Middle Ages did not have.
13. Fielding's *Tom Jones* is one of the most interesting novels that I have ever read.
14. That sonata which should never be tried by an unskilled pianist was miserably played at the recital.

¹ Some authorities would place *where* on a line connecting *met* and *house*.

15. Theodore August Metz who wrote "A Hot Time in the Old Town Tonight" was born in Germany in 1848.
16. The clerk I dismissed was negligent.
17. William Jennings Bryan who ran for the Presidency three times was a great orator.
18. His wife whom he met at college is a woman of refinement and culture.
19. The woman whose husband bought my car is a reckless driver.
20. The Holland Tunnel which carries vehicular traffic below the Hudson River has been open for some years.

CHAPTER II

THE ADVERBIAL CLAUSE

A. DEFINITION

A dependent clause with the function of an adverb is called an **adverbial clause**. Like an adverb, it modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb (sometimes a preposition or a conjunction). In the first sentence below, it indicates the time of the action of the verb *saw*, in the second the degree of the adjective *swift*, in the third the degree of the adverb *swiftly*, and in the fourth the degree of the preposition *near*:

1. While they were in California, they *saw* the giant redwood trees near Crescent City. (When did they *see* the trees?)
2. My horse is as *swift* as his [horse is *swift*]. (How *swift* is my horse?)
3. My horse runs as *swiftly* as his [horse runs *swiftly*]. (How *swiftly* does my horse run?)
4. He parked his car as *near* the fence as he could [park it]. (How *near* the fence did he park his car?)

So far as grammatical function is concerned, these dependent clauses could be replaced by simple adverbs or adverbial nouns:

1. Last year they *saw* the giant redwood trees near Crescent City.
2. My horse is very *swift*.
3. My horse runs very *swiftly*.
4. He parked his car very *near* the fence.

Adverbial clauses usually express place, time, manner, condition, degree or comparison, concession, result, cause or reason, purpose, contrast.

B. SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

Adverbial clauses are commonly introduced by **subordinating conjunctions**. The most important subordinating conjunctions are:

1. Place: *where, wherever, whither, whence.*
2. Time: *when, while, after, before, as, until, since.*
3. Manner: *as, as if, as though.*
4. Condition: *if, unless, provided that.*
5. Degree or comparison: *than, as . . . as, so . . . as, so . . . that.*
6. Concession: *though, although, even if, even though, notwithstanding that, no matter what, in spite of the fact that.*
7. Result: *so that.*
8. Cause or reason: *because, inasmuch as, since, as.*
9. Purpose: *that, so that, in order that, lest.*
10. Contrast: *whereas.*

Note 1. A degree clause introduced by *so . . . that* might be called a degree-result clause. In the following sentence the adverbial clause indicates, not only the degree of anger, but also the result or effect of the degree of anger:

He was so angry that he trembled.

An adverbial clause introduced by *so that* (without separation of *so* and *that*) is a pure result clause:

He was very angry, so that he trembled.

11.1 *Note 2.* Many careful writers and speakers limit *as . . . as* to the affirmative and use *so . . . as* for the negative:

Affirmative: He is as tall as I.

Negative: He is not so tall as I.

The number and the variety of the subordinating conjunctions suggest the importance of the adverbial clause, which is particularly useful in expressing precise shades of meaning. In the following examples, for instance, the complex sentences indicate the relationship of the clauses much more definitely than do the compound sentences or the pair of simple sentences:

We walked very slowly to school on that beautiful spring morning, and we were fifteen minutes late.

We walked so slowly to school on that beautiful spring morning that we were fifteen minutes late.

Philadelphia was eighty miles away; he drove down in an hour and three quarters.

Although Philadelphia was eighty miles away, he drove down in an hour and three quarters.

The family moved from the farm to town. They had three children ready for high school.

The family moved from the farm to town because they had three children ready for high school.

11.2 Occasionally an adverbial clause does not have a conjunction:

Had you been careful, the accident would not have happened.

Observe, however, that the omission of *if* is compensated for by the inverted position of the subject.

A conjunction may be modified by an adverb or an adverbial noun:

Adverb: The fire broke out **shortly** after school had been dismissed.

Adverbial noun: The fire broke out ten **minutes** after school had been dismissed.

C. PUNCTUATION OF THE ADVERBIAL CLAUSE

11.3 An adverbial clause preceding the independent clause is normally set off by a comma:

If a person follows the Golden Rule, he will be respected by his friends and associates.

11.4 If the adverbial clause is very short, the comma may be omitted, provided that the meaning is clear without it.

11.5 An adverbial clause following the independent clause is set off by a comma if it is non-restrictive, but not set off if it is restrictive. Adverbial clauses of place, time, manner, condition, and degree or comparison are usually restrictive, inasmuch as they are necessary for the logical completion of the independent clauses. In the following sentences the dependent clauses restrict the main verbs as to place, time, manner, or condition:

Place: I want to live where the rush and the noise of the city will not disturb me.

Time: Social degeneration sets in when people begin to worship the dollar.

Manner: She dresses as if she were the wife of a millionaire.

Condition: I am not willing to go unless you agree to pay my expenses.

- 11.6 A clause introduced by *provided that*, however, is set off by a comma, because of being in the nature of an afterthought.

I shall graduate next June, provided that I do not fail in any course.

- 11.7 The clause of degree or comparison (including the degree-result clause) is restrictive because of indicating the degree or measure of the quality expressed by the word modified (usually an adjective or an adverb), and hence no punctuation is needed:

He is so cautious that he is almost afraid to move.

- 11.8 A clause of concession, of pure result, or of contrast is non-restrictive and hence is set off by a comma:

Concession: The audience was small, although the recital was given by a very excellent pianist.

Result: Mr. Norton has withdrawn his candidacy, so that Mr. Holmes is now unopposed.

Contrast: The registration in the high school increased by 252, whereas the enrollment in the grade schools decreased by 241.

- 11.9 A clause of purpose or of reason or cause is set off by commas if the emphasis is on the independent clause, the adverbial clause being merely an added statement. According to the punctuation of the following examples, the writer assumes that the reader does not know the facts stated in the independent clauses:

Purpose: In 1926 our family moved to Des Moines, in order that my older sisters might attend a good high school.

Reason: The next year Harold changed his major to French, because he did not have enough money to pay for private music lessons.

- 11.10 If the clause of purpose or of reason has the emphasis, especially if the reader already knows the fact stated in the independent clause, the comma is omitted:

I am come that they might have life.—*John* 10:10.

Harold changed his major to French because he did not have enough money to pay for private music lessons.

The last two sentences are practically equivalent to:

My purpose in coming was that they might have life.

Harold's reason for changing his major to French was that he did not have enough money to pay for private music lessons.

The punctuation of adverbial clauses may be summed up as follows: If the adverbial clause is in the initial position, it is set

off by a comma unless it is very short. (This statement applies even to the restrictive adverbial clause, the reason being that the conjunction does not come between the two clauses.) An adverbial clause in final position is set off by a comma if it does not have an integral connection with the word modified (that is, if it is non-restrictive), but not set off if it has an integral connection (that is, if it is restrictive).

D. COMMON ERRORS IN CONJUNCTIONS

- 11.11 A clause should not be introduced by *like*, which is not a conjunction. Use *as*, *as if*, or *that*:

Wrong: Do like I do.

Right: Do as I do.

Wrong: It seems like he is sick.

Right: It seems that he is sick.

- 11.12 On the other hand, *like* is correct as the preposition of a prepositional phrase:

Right: His son looks like him.

- 11.13 Do not use *without* (a preposition or an adverb) as a conjunction:

Wrong: You will starve without you take some lunch along.

Right: You will starve unless you take some lunch along.

Right: I started without taking any lunch along.

- 11.14 Do not use *while* in the sense of *and*:

Wrong: Ruth is married, Martha is clerking in a store, while Helen is attending college.

Right: Ruth is married, Martha is clerking in a store, and Helen is attending college.

The primary function of *while* as a connective is to express time relationships.

- 11.15 Do not use *while* (instead of *whereas*) to express contrast:

Wrong: Hester is a blonde while her mother is a brunette.

Right: Hester is a blonde, whereas her mother is a brunette.

Confusing: Schwartz played fullback while Hein was a center. [The reader might interpret *while* in the sense of *during the time that*.]

Clear: Schwartz played fullback, whereas Hein was a center.

Sometimes *while* can be effectively replaced by a semicolon:

Wrong: The English section of Hongkong has many automobiles and street cars while the Chinese part has few conveyances except jinrikishas.

Right: The English section of Hongkong has many automobiles and street cars; the Chinese part has few conveyances except jinrikishas.

11.16 Do not use *while* to express concession when confusion in meaning may result:

Confusing: While the instructor was very strict, I enjoyed the course.

Clear: Though the instructor was very strict, I enjoyed the course.

Even when the meaning is clear, *though* or *although* is preferable to *while*.

11.17 Do not overuse *as* and *since* in causal relationships, avoiding them entirely when the meaning would be confused:

Confusing: Since Mother was sick, I had to stay out of school.

Clear: Because Mother was sick, I had to stay out of school.

11.18 Do not use *providing* for *provided*:

Wrong: I shall graduate next June, providing that I do not fail in any course. (Substitute *provided*.)

11.19 Do not use *so* and *such* as intensive adverbs:

Wrong: This book is so interesting.

Right: This book is very interesting.

Wrong: This is such an interesting book.

Right: This is a very interesting book.

So and *such* require adverbial clauses to complete the meaning:

This book is so interesting **that I finished it at one sitting.**

This is such an interesting book **that I finished it at one sitting.**

Do not punctuate transitional adverbs and phrases (*so* when used alone to introduce a result clause, *hence*, *moreover*, *in fact*, and so forth) as if they were conjunctions (see rule 5.5).

E. COMPARISONS

11.20 In expressions of comparison like the following, do not treat *as* (preceded by *as* or *so*) and *than* as prepositions, but as conjunctions:

Wrong: You are more handsome than him.

Right: You are more handsome **than he** [is handsome].

Wrong: He is as tall as me.

Right: He is as tall as I **[am tall]**.

- The pronouns after the connectives are not the objects of prepositions, but the subjects of elliptical adverbial clauses. **11.21** *Than whom*, however, in spite of being ungrammatical, has been established by usage:

Which when Beelzebub perceived—**than whom**,
Satan except, none higher sat—with grave
Aspect he rose.—*Paradise Lost*, II, 299-301.

- 11.22** If a pronoun after *than* or *as . . . as* is the object of the elliptical clause, use the objective case. "I visit you as often as her" means "as often as *I* visit *her*," whereas "I visit you as often as she" means "as often as *she* visits *you*."
11.23 If a noun after *than* or *as . . . as* could be interpreted as either the subject or the object of the elliptical clause, make the meaning clear by repeating an element or inserting a substitute:

Confusing: I visit you as often as Mary.
Clear: I visit you as often as **does** Mary.
Clear: I visit you as often as I **do** Mary.
Confusing: He was better acquainted with Carson than Dunlap.
Clear: He was better acquainted with Carson than **with** Dunlap.
Clear: He was better acquainted with Carson than **was** Dunlap.

- 11.24** Do not mix the two constructions of the comparative with *than* and the positive with *as* (or *so*) . . . *as*:

Wrong: He is as tall, if not taller than I.
Right (though awkward): He is as tall **as**, if not taller than, I.
Recommended: He is as tall as I, if not taller.

- 11.25** Complete comparisons logically. (1) After the comparative degree, exclude the subject of the comparison from the group (or individual) with which it is compared:

Wrong: Jim Bridger knew more about the Yellowstone Park region than did anybody of his time.
Right: Jim Bridger knew more about the Yellowstone Park region than did anybody **else** of his time.

- 11.26** (2) After the superlative degree, include the subject of the comparison in the group of individuals compared:

Wrong: He is the best of all the other players.
Right: He is the best of all the players (or, He is the best player on the squad).

- 11.27 (3) **Specify exactly the thing or person with which or whom the comparison is made:**

Wrong: The climate here is similar to Florida.

Right: The climate here is similar to **that of** Florida. (Compare climate with climate, not climate with Florida.)

Confusing: Its tail is as large as a rat.

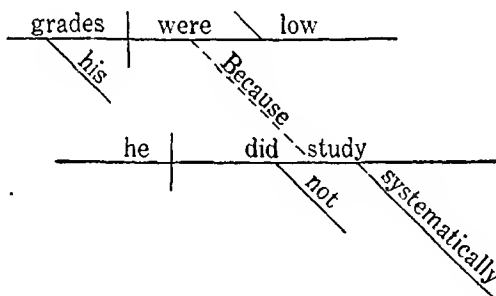
Clear: Its tail is as large as a **rat's**.

F. DIAGRAMMING THE ADVERBIAL CLAUSE

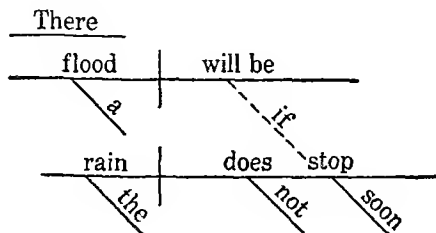
Being a modifier, the adverbial clause is placed below the word modified. The clauses are diagrammed as if they were separate sentences, and the conjunction is written on a dotted line connecting them.

1. If the word modified is a verb, the dotted line connects this verb and the predicate of the adverbial clause. All adverbial clauses except those of degree or comparison modify verbs. Even if the adverbial clause stands at the beginning of the sentence, it is placed below the independent clause:

- a. **Because he did not study systematically**, his grades were low.

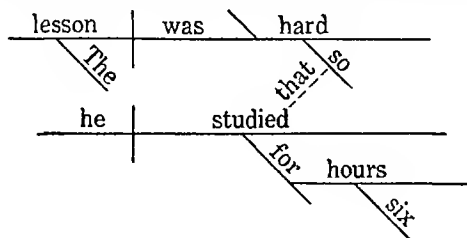


- b. There will be a flood if the rain does not stop soon.



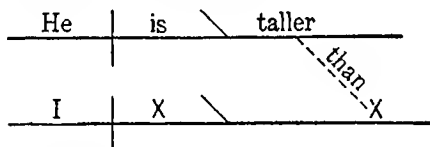
2. Strictly speaking, a degree-result clause modifies the adverb *so*, which, in turn, usually modifies an adjective or an adverb:

c. The lesson was *so* hard *that* he studied for six hours.



3. Clauses of comparison (introduced by *than*, *as . . . as*, or *so . . . as*) are frequently elliptical; accordingly, the omitted portions are indicated by crosses (X). Observe that adjectives or adverbs forming the basis of the comparison in the two clauses are connected by the conjunction *than* directly or by the conjunction *as* through the adverb *as* or the adverb *so*:

d. He is taller *than* I [am tall].



e. You do not work *so* rapidly *as* she [works rapidly].

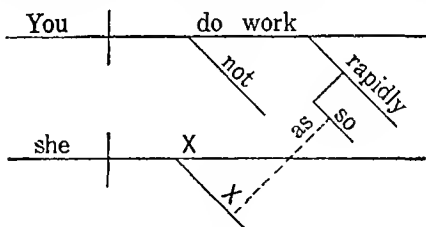


Diagram the following. Notice that the internal punctuation has been omitted, and that some of the sentences do not contain adverbial clauses.

1. Because the water comes from artesian wells it is very pure.
2. He had never been home since his father had died.
3. She came to the dinner although she had just arrived from New York.
4. He entered the room as if he were in a great hurry.

5. Young birds do not fly until **they** have attained their growth.
6. The chauffeur drove so slowly **that** we missed our train.
7. Before he came to college he had worked for three years in a factory.
8. Inasmuch as he understands the terms we expect an immediate reply.
9. They would have driven to town for the dance but the roads were too muddy.
10. In spite of the business depression the colleges were crowded.
11. Wherever Hannibal led his soldiers followed willingly.
12. The orchestra played "Home Sweet Home" until all the dancers had left the room.
13. As we approached the giant redwood trees we saw the delicacy of their needles.
14. We shall not win the game unless we have luck.
15. If you have time write **me** a note before you leave.
16. Many men who have become rich have never attended college.
17. We came to the place where we had seen the flowers.
18. Because Tom had made a strong record in college he secured a good position on graduation.
19. Tom worked hard in college in order that he might secure a good position later.
20. She is one of the most polite persons I have ever met.

CHAPTER 12

THE NOUN CLAUSE

A. DEFINITION

A dependent clause with the function of a noun is called a **noun clause**. The chief uses in which it may replace a noun are as follows:

As the subject of a verb—

1. **That he is a good student** is clear.

As a delayed subject with the introductory pronoun *it*—

2. It is clear **that he is a good student**.

As a subjective complement—

3. His decision was **that he would not buy a car**.

As the object of a verb—

4. He said **that he would come**.
5. He said **he would come**.

6. He crushed **whoever opposed him.**

7. They will inquire **who you are.**

8. I asked **where you were.**

As the object of a preposition—

9. He did not pay much attention to **what he read.**

As an appositive modifier—

10. The suggestion **that we turn back** was approved by all.¹

Observe that in each of the first, the second, the third, the fourth, and the tenth sentences, the noun clause is introduced by the conjunction *that*; in the fifth, by *that* understood; in the ninth, by the compound relative pronoun *what* (equivalent to *that which*); in the seventh, by the interrogative pronoun *who*; in the eighth, by the interrogative adverb *where*; and in the sixth, by the indefinite relative pronoun *whoever*. In the fourth and the fifth sentences, the noun clauses are indirect quotations, and, in the seventh and the eighth sentences, indirect questions.

B. PUNCTUATION OF THE NOUN CLAUSE

- 12.1 **Except when employed as a modifier in non-restrictive apposition, the noun clause is ordinarily not set off by any punctuation.** Because of having the function of a noun, it is usually
- 12.2 **an integral part of the independent clause. If, however, a noun clause used as the subject is so long or complicated that the reader can not easily recognize where it ends, a comma may**
- 12.3 **be inserted at the point of division. Again, if the last word of a noun clause is identical with the word immediately following, a comma is desirable:**

Whatever is, is right.

¹ Though the appositive noun clause closely resembles an adjective clause, the two can be distinguished by the fact that in the former type *that* is a subordinating conjunction (*without* substantive function), whereas in the latter the connective is a relative pronoun (*with* substantive function in its own clause). In the following sentence the dependent clause is adjectival, inasmuch as *that* is the object of *made*:

The suggestion that I made was approved by all.
For the practical purpose of writing, however, the distinction is not important.

- 12.4 A noun clause in non-restrictive apposition is commonly set off by dashes if in the middle of the sentence (sometimes by commas or marks of parenthesis):

My opponent's first contention—that the entrance of women into business has lowered the standard of living—is not convincing.

- 12.5 If a noun clause in non-restrictive apposition stands at the end of the sentence, a colon is also correct:

I do not agree with my opponent's first contention: namely, that the entrance of women into business has lowered the standard of living.

- 12.6 If a direct quotation is short, especially if it consists of not more than one sentence, it is usually separated from the verb of saying or the equivalent by a comma:

He said, "I am coming."

- 12.7 If a quotation is long, a colon after a preceding expression of saying is preferable:

Samuel Johnson said concerning Alexander Pope: "He examined lines and words with minute and punctilious observation, and retouched every part with indefatigable diligence, till he had left nothing to be forgiven. For this reason he kept his pieces very long in his hands, while he considered and reconsidered them."

- 12.8 Sometimes *he said* or its equivalent intervenes between two parts of a quotation. If a comma or no punctuation would be used between the two parts without the expression of saying, place commas both before and after the intervening words; but if a semicolon or a period would be required, place a semicolon or a period just before the second part:

Right: "Mary," he said, "I am coming."

Wrong: "I am coming tomorrow," he said, "please have the money ready for me."

Right: "I am coming tomorrow," he said. "Please have the money ready for me."

In the sentence designated as "Wrong," the construction is really a comma splice:

Wrong: "I am coming tomorrow, please have the money ready for me."

- 12.9 Do not use a comma before an indirect quotation:

Wrong: She said, that she had been sick.

Right: She said that she had been sick.

C. COMMON ERRORS

- 12.10 The case of a pronoun in a noun clause is determined by the function of the word in its own clause—not by the function of the noun clause:

Wrong: Give the message to whomever answers the telephone.

Right: Give the message to whoever answers the telephone.

Wrong: Whoever you select will be acceptable.

Right: Whomever you select will be acceptable.

In the first example, *whoever* is nominative because it is the subject of *answers*; the preposition *to* governs, not the pronoun introducing the noun clause, but the whole noun clause. In the second example, *whomever* is objective because it is the object of *select*; the subject of *will be* is, not the pronoun introducing the noun clause, but the whole noun clause.

As a special method of determining whether *whoever* or *whomever* is required in sentences like those discussed in the previous paragraph, replace the compound relative pronouns by *anybody* plus *who* or *whom*. If *who* would be the proper form with *anybody*, *whoever* is correct; if *whom* would be used with *anybody*, *whomever* is right:

Give the message to anybody **who** answers the telephone. [Hence *whoever*]
Anybody **whom** you select will be acceptable. [Hence *whomever*]

- 12.11 A *because* clause should have adverbial function only and should not be used after *the reason is* or as the subject of a sentence:

Wrong: My reason for coming to college is because I want to be an engineer.

Right: My reason for coming to college is **that** I want to be an engineer.

Wrong: Because you were ill does not exempt you from the work missed.

Right: **The fact that** you were ill does not exempt you from the work missed.

The dependent clause after *the reason is* should answer the question *what?* (not *why?*) and hence should be a real substantive—a noun clause introduced by *that*. In the second example the subject of *does exempt* should likewise be a real substantive—*fact* (with a noun clause in restrictive apposition). In the following construction, the *because* clause is correct, inasmuch as it is a modifier of the verb *came*:

I came to college because I want to be an engineer.

- 12.12 In giving a definition, do not use a *when* or a *where* clause as a subjective complement. *Is* should be followed by a substantive:

Wrong: A quadruped is when an animal has four legs.

Right: A quadruped is an **animal** having four legs.

Wrong: A democracy is where the people rule.

Right: A democracy is a **state** in which the people rule.

- 12.13 Do not use *where* for *that* in the following construction:

Wrong: I see where Professor Smith has published a book on the educational system of China.

Right: I see that Professor Smith has published a book on the educational system of China.

D. THE COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCE

A sentence containing two or more independent clauses and at least one dependent clause is frequently called **compound-complex**:

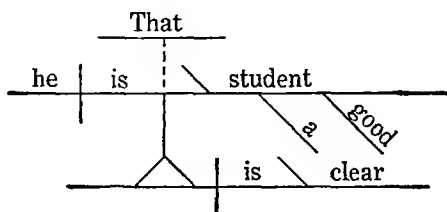
My cousin has published nine stories, and I believe that he has written a play.

E. DIAGRAMMING THE NOUN CLAUSE

Inasmuch as a noun clause has the function of a noun, it is diagrammed on a "stilt" in the place which the noun would occupy. A subordinating conjunction introducing a noun clause is placed above the stilt; a compound relative pronoun, an interrogative pronoun, or an interrogative adverb is diagrammed in accordance with its function in its own clause:

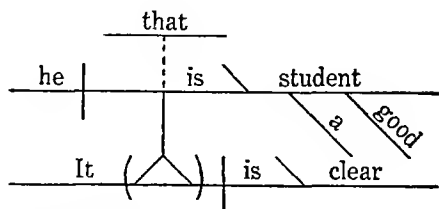
Subject—

1. That he is a good student is clear.



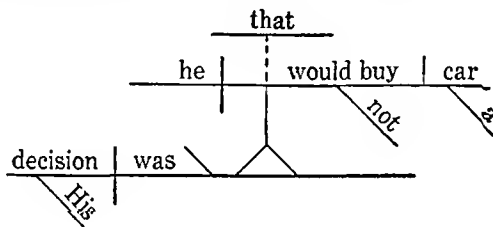
Delayed subject—

2. It is clear **that he is a good student.**



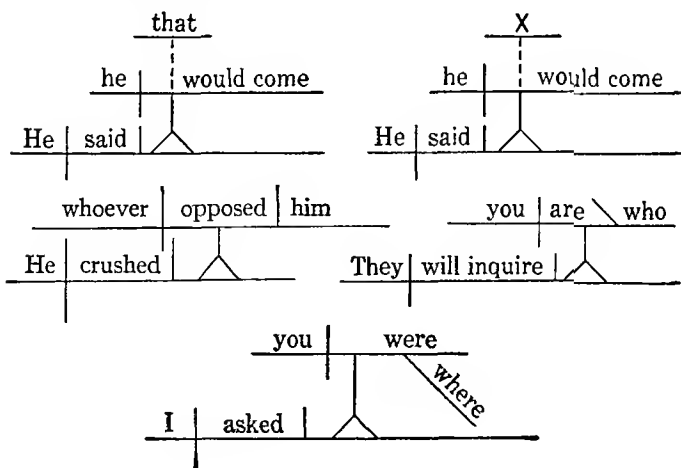
Subjective complement—

3. His decision was **that he would not buy a car.**



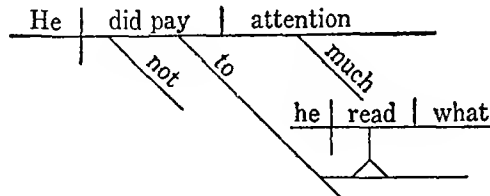
Object—

4. He said **that he would come.**
 5. He said **he would come.**
 6. He crushed **whoever opposed him.**
 7. They will inquire **who you are.**
 8. I asked **where you were.**



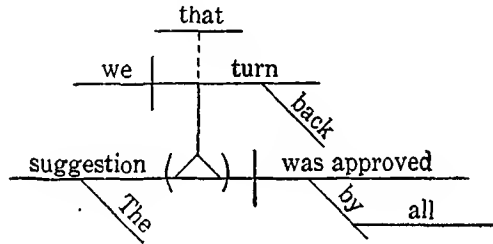
Object of a preposition—

9. He did not pay much attention to **what he read**.



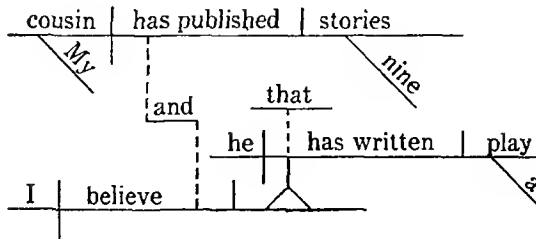
Appositive—

10. The suggestion **that we turn back** was approved by all.



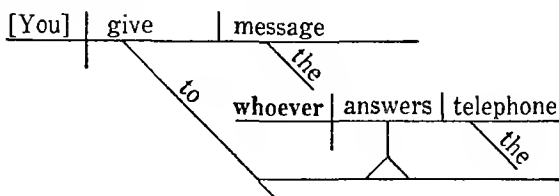
In compound-complex sentences, the independent clauses are diagrammed like the independent clauses of plain compound sentences, and the dependent clauses like the dependent clauses of plain complex sentences:

My cousin has published nine stories, and I believe that he has written a play.



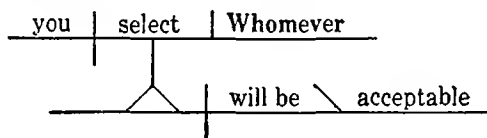
If in doubt concerning the proper case of a pronoun introducing a noun clause, diagram the sentence:

1. Give the message to ^{whoever}_{whomever} answers the telephone.



The diagram indicates that the nominative form, *whoever*, is required in the above sentence. The pronoun is the subject of *answers*, not the object of the preposition *to*—the whole noun clause (*whoever answers the telephone*) being the object of *to*.

2. ^{Whoever}_{Whomever} you select will be acceptable.



The diagram shows that the objective form, *whomever*, is the correct one. The compound relative pronoun is the object of *select*, not the subject of *will be*—the whole noun clause (*whomever you select*) being the subject of *will be*.

Diagram the following sentences. Observe that some of them do not contain noun clauses.

1. That Coolidge would not accept the nomination was the current belief.
2. It is not usual that a man refuses the nomination.
3. Coolidge said that he would not accept the nomination.
4. I did not reply to what he asked.
5. The coach did not answer the question which I asked.
6. The answer to my application was that I should report for work on Monday.
7. My observation of how students drive cars has been extensive.
8. Mother asked where I was going.
9. He said that he did not know the name of the vice-president.
10. That few people know the second verse of "The Star Spangled Banner" is a disgrace.
11. His examination shows a thorough knowledge of the subject, and his term paper reveals remarkable originality.
12. I do not remember when he arrived.

13. The plea of the Red Cross was that many thousands of people needed immediate relief.
14. When Chaucer was born is not known.
15. I thought you were on the Honor Roll.
16. I shall wait here until you arrive.

Diagram the following sentences to determine whether the case forms of the pronouns introducing the noun clauses are correct:

17. Whoever he met, he greeted.
18. Whoever stands in his way, he ruthlessly puts down.
19. I could not tell whom it was at the door.
20. The scholarship will be awarded to whomever is recommended by the committee.

CHAPTER 13

POSITION OF MODIFIERS; REVIEW

A. POSITION OF MODIFIERS

The sentence should have coherence in respect to the order of its parts. The elements should be so placed that their proper relationship is immediately clear to the reader.

- 13.1 Elements that might erroneously be read together should be separated:**

Faulty: Kindly remit the money which you owe us as soon as possible.
 Improved: Kindly remit as soon as possible the money which you owe us.
 Faulty: Mrs. Cates was informed that her son had been arrested by telephone.
 Improved: Mrs. Cates was informed by telephone that her son had been arrested.

- 13.2 For the separation of elements erroneously read together, an adverbial modifier can frequently be moved to the beginning of the sentence:**

Faulty: I saw the jail where Joseph Smith was shot by a mob during my visit to Carthage, Illinois, last summer.
 Improved: During my visit to Carthage, Illinois, last summer, I saw the jail where Joseph Smith was shot by a mob.

- 13.3 For the correction of the faulty association of elements, a change of construction is sometimes desirable:**

Faulty: He tried to kill his wife three times. (Obviously, *three times* should not be read with *kill*.)
 Improved: He made three attempts to kill his wife.

- 13.4 A dependent clause belonging to the first part of a compound predicate should not be permitted to cause the second verb of the compound predicate to be read as a part of the dependent clause:

Confusing: My parents sold their farm two years after they were married and moved to New Orleans.

Improved: Two years after they were married, my parents sold their farm and moved to New Orleans.

- 13.5 *Only, almost, nearly, ever,* and similar words should normally stand next to the elements modified:

Wrong: I only saw him once.

Right: I saw him only once.

Frequently a change in the position of such a modifier makes a difference in the meaning. In the following example the difference is nearly three hundred dollars:

I earned nearly three hundred dollars last summer.

I nearly earned three hundred dollars last summer. (The implication is that I earned nothing.)

- 13.6 An adjective clause should ordinarily not be separated from the substantive modified:

Awkward: Nearly seven million workers were unemployed in the United States in the winter of 1930-31, on whom perhaps twenty million persons depended for support.

Improved: Nearly seven million workers, on whom perhaps twenty million persons depended for support, were unemployed in the United States in the winter of 1930-31.

Misleading: We sold all the berries at the store that we had picked.

Improved: We sold at the store all the berries that we had picked.

An appositive, however, because of being identical with the substantive modified, can readily be inserted before a non-restrictive adjective clause:

Anna Pavlova, the world's most famous stage dancer, who died in January, 1931, left an estate of about \$350,000.

- 13.7 A "squinting" modifier—one that can be read with either the preceding or the following element—should be avoided:

Confusing: Children who can not swim unless accompanied by adults are not admitted to the beach.

Clear: Children who can not swim are not admitted to the beach unless they are accompanied by adults.

Clear: Unless accompanied by adults, children who can not swim are not admitted to the beach.

B. REVIEW OF ADVERBIAL MODIFIERS

Adverbial modifiers indicate time, place, degree, and so forth; they usually modify verbs, adjectives, or adverbs (sometimes prepositions or conjunctions). The following adverbial modifiers have been discussed so far:

1. Adverbs (Chapter 2, § B).
2. Adverbial nouns (Chapter 9, § C).
3. Adverbial phrases (Chapter 3, § B).
4. Adverbial clauses (Chapter 11, § A).

Note. The infinitive, which also may have adverbial function, will be treated in Chapter 18.

C. REVIEW OF SUBSTANTIVES

A substantive is a noun or a substitute for a noun—a word or a group of words with the function of a noun. The substantive is used chiefly as the subject of a clause, a subjective complement, a direct object of a verb, an indirect object of a verb, the object of a preposition, an objective complement, an appositive (really an adjective modifier), and a nominative of address.

The kinds of substantive already discussed are—

1. Nouns (Chapter 1, § C).
2. Pronouns (Chapter 1, § D).
3. Noun clauses (Chapter 12, § A).
4. Adjectives (Chapter 8, § A).

Note. Two other kinds of substantive—the gerund and the infinitive—will be considered in Chapters 17 and 18.

D. SUMMARY OF CLAUSES AND SENTENCES

A *clause* is a group of words containing one subject and one predicate, either one or both of which may be compound. A *dependent* clause is one used as a modifier or a substantive—that is, one having the function of an adjective, an adverb, or a noun. There are three kinds of dependent clause: an *adjective* clause modifies a noun or other substantive; an *adverbial* clause modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb; and a *noun* clause serves most

commonly as subject of a verb, subjective complement, direct object, object of a preposition, or appositive. Strictly speaking, a dependent clause is a part of another clause, just as an adjective, an adverb, a phrase, or a noun is a part of a clause; in fact, sometimes the very same meaning can be expressed by a dependent clause as by a word or a phrase:

Adjective: A **dull ax** is unsatisfactory.

Adjective clause: An ax **that is dull** is unsatisfactory.

Adverbial phrase: At **our entrance into the World War**, we were poorly equipped with airplanes.

Adverbial clause: **When we entered the World War**, we were poorly equipped with airplanes.

Noun: His **absence** was not noticed.

Noun clause: **That he was absent** was not noticed.

An *independent* clause is one capable of standing alone in the sense of not having merely the function of a modifier or a substantive. Independent clauses frequently contain dependent clauses as modifiers or substantives.

A *simple* sentence consists of one independent clause. A *compound* sentence is composed of two or more independent clauses. A *complex* sentence contains one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses. A *compound-complex* sentence includes two or more independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses.

E. SUMMARY OF THE PUNCTUATION OF CLAUSES

The compound sentence. Two independent clauses joined by a coördinating conjunction are normally separated by a comma before the conjunction. If the clauses are short and closely related, the comma may be omitted; if they are complicated, a semicolon should be used. Independent clauses not connected by a conjunction—even though a transitional adverb or phrase be present—should be separated by a semicolon.

The adjective clause. Non-restrictive clauses are set off by commas, whereas restrictive clauses require no punctuation.

The adverbial clause. Unless short and closely related to the independent clauses, adverbial clauses in initial position are set off by commas. Adverbial clauses in final position are set off by commas if non-restrictive, but not separated if restrictive.

The noun clause. Except for direct quotations and non-restrictive

appositives, noun clauses are usually not set off by any punctuation. Short quotations are separated from verbs of saying or the equivalent by commas, and long quotations by colons. Noun clauses in non-restrictive apposition are commonly set off by dashes (sometimes by marks of parenthesis or by commas) if in the middle of a sentence, and by either dashes or colons if in final position.

- 13.8 *Caution 1. Comma splice.* If two independent clauses are not joined by a conjunction, a comma is usually not sufficient to separate them, but a semicolon is required. Remember that an independent clause is one that is not used with adjective, adverbial, or noun function in another clause. As a further aid to recognize independent clauses, observe that a dependent clause is generally introduced by a connective (relative pronoun, relative adverb, subordinating conjunction), an interrogative pronoun or an interrogative adverb. Adjective and noun clauses should not cause much trouble; though a relative pronoun used as the object in an adjective clause or *that* introducing a noun clause is sometimes omitted, the connective is readily felt as understood:

Adjective clause: This is the book [which] I bought.

Noun clause: I see [that] you are tired.

An adverbial clause (especially a conditional clause) is sometimes without a subordinating conjunction, but in that case the subject is frequently in inverted position:

Had you treated him fairly, he would help you now.

The use of a transitional expression (such as *then*, *however*, *in fact*) between two independent clauses not joined by a conjunction does not make a comma sufficient (see rule 5.5).

- 13.9 *Note:* The word *however* is not always merely a transitional expression; sometimes it is a relative adverb and introduces an adverbial clause:

Relative adverb: She must now earn her bread by the sweat of her brow, **however** proud she may be. (*However* modifies *proud*.)

Transitional adverb: She has been pampered all her life; **however**, she must now earn her bread by the sweat of her brow.

Transitional adverb (emphatic word order): She has been pampered all her life; **now, however**, she must earn her bread by the sweat of her brow.

Observe that, if used as a transitional adverb, *however* is set off in

its own clause by a comma or commas, and the two independent clauses are separated by a semicolon (or a period); if used as a relative adverb, the word is not set off in its own clause, and the adverbial clause is separated from the independent clause only by a comma.

- 13.10 **Caution 2. Do not punctuate a dependent clause as if it were a complete sentence. Attach it to an independent clause or make it grammatically complete by changing the construction:**

Wrong: Nations fight because of false pride or the propaganda of influential men. Who wish to benefit themselves materially.

Right: Nations fight because of false pride or the propaganda of influential men who wish to benefit themselves materially.

Wrong: That was the time when the "grand old days" of the theater began to decline. When big names and important plays gradually disappeared from the local opera house.

Right: That was the time when the "grand old days" of the theater began to decline, when big names and important plays gradually disappeared from the local opera house.

Right: That was the time when the "grand old days" of the theater began to decline. Big names and important plays gradually disappeared from the local opera house.

Wrong: That the acts of the present generation are the seed which will produce good or evil fruit in the distant future.

Right: We should realize that the acts of the present generation are the seed which will produce good or evil fruit in the distant future.

Right: The acts of the present generation are the seed which will produce good or evil fruit in the distant future.

F. REVIEW OF THE DIAGRAMMING OF CLAUSES

Diagram the following as a review of clauses:

1. John Marshall, who became Chief Justice in 1801, greatly increased the prestige of the Supreme Court of the United States.
2. History records that 100,000 slaves worked for twenty years in the construction of the Great Pyramid.
3. If wishes were horses, all beggars would ride.
4. One of the queer things which have caused hay-fever is glue.
5. Because he could not master mathematics, he has abandoned the study of engineering.
6. Ras Tafari, who became Emperor of Abyssinia in 1930, announced that he would liberate the slaves of his country.
7. I told him the truth, but he did not believe me.
8. It is estimated that railroad whistles use 2,434,000 tons of coal each year.
9. Queen Elizabeth must have been a very shrewd woman, for she had a strong government.

10. When the Lewis and Clark Expedition left St. Louis in 1804, the party included forty-five persons.
11. He that getteth wisdom loveth his own soul; he that keepeth understanding shall find good.—*Proverbs* 19:8.
12. A Turk who said that he was 157 years old visited the United States in 1931.
13. Anderson is an expert chemist, and his wife is a proficient pianist.
14. That the sun revolved around the earth was the belief of the ancients.
15. My brother is very fond of golf, but I prefer tennis.

CHAPTER 14

VOICE; TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE

A. VOICE

Many verbs of action have two forms according to the relation between the subject and the action expressed by the verb. If the subject performs the action, the verb is in the **active** voice; if the subject is acted upon, the verb is in the **passive** voice:

Active: The police captured the robber.

Passive: The robber was captured by the police.

The performer of the action is called the **agent**. In the active voice the agent is the subject; in the passive it is expressed by a prepositional phrase or is omitted. In the active voice the receiver is the direct object; in the passive it is the subject. In the following the agent is printed in bold-faced type, and the receiver is italicized:

Active: **Branson** shot a large *elk*.

Passive: A large *elk* was shot by **Branson**.

Passive: A large *elk* was shot.

If a verb followed by an objective complement is changed into the passive voice, the objective complement becomes a subjective complement:

Objective complement (noun): In 1913 Woodrow Wilson appointed William Jennings Bryan **Secretary of State**.

Subjective complement (noun): In 1913 William Jennings Bryan was appointed **Secretary of State** by Woodrow Wilson.

Objective complement (adjective): The Good Fellows made the poor widow and her children **happy**.

Subjective complement (adjective): The poor widow and her children were made **happy** by the Good Fellows.

Inasmuch as the direct object of a verb in the active voice usually becomes the subject in the passive construction, a passive verb normally does not have an object. One exception, however, should be noted: a peculiar idiom called the **retained** object. The indirect object of a verb in the active voice can sometimes be changed into the subject of the passive form of the verb, the direct object being "retained":

Indirect object (with active voice): Albert gave **Hilda** a diamond ring.

Retained object (with passive voice): Hilda was given a diamond **ring**.

Observe that, in the second form of the statement (as well as in the first), *ring* fulfills the requirements of a direct object. It answers the question *what?* placed after the verb (*was given*) and is not identical with the subject.¹

B. TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE

A **transitive** verb is a verb of action with an expressed receiver of the action. In other words, it has a direct object (if in the active voice) or is in the passive. In the active voice the receiver is the direct object of the verb; in the passive it is the subject:

Active (with direct object): The police captured the **robber**.

Passive: The **robber** was captured by the police.

In both cases an agent ("police") performs an action ("capture") on a receiver ("robber"). In the passive the agent may be omitted.

An **intransitive** verb is one not expressing action at all (such as *is* and *seems*) or one expressing action without having a receiver

¹ The construction of the retained object originated from the fact that about a thousand years ago, in a stage of our language known as "Old English," the meaning of our indirect object was expressed by a case called the "dative." This ended in *e* in many nouns and could be placed at the beginning of the sentence for emphasis, the passive construction being equivalent to the following: "[To] **Brynhild** was given a ring." Observe that *ring*, though following the verb, is here the subject. Through the loss of its ending, the dative of nouns later became the same as the nominative, and, accordingly, in the present construction it began to be felt as the subject: "**Brynhild** was given a ring." For instance, if a pronoun is substituted for **Brynhild**, the nominative case is used: "**She** (not 'her') was given a ring." *Ring* came to be regarded as a "retained" object, inasmuch as it is an object in the equivalent active construction: "[Siegfried] gave **Brynhild** a **ring**."

of the action. In other words, it is a verb not having a direct object and not having a subject that is acted upon:

Calvin Coolidge was the thirtieth President of the United States.
I **walked** to the campus.

In the first sentence the verb *was* does not express action, and in the second the action is not performed on any person or thing.

Some grammarians class the intransitive verb as active; others maintain that it has no voice. The important point to remember is merely that only a transitive verb can be used in the **passive**.

In deciding whether a verb of action is transitive or intransitive, one should first find the subject. Then he should ask whether the subject is acting or being acted upon. (This will determine whether the verb is in the active or the passive voice.)

1. If the subject is being acted upon, the verb is *transitive passive*:

The bucket **had been emptied**.

2. If the subject acts and there is a direct object, the verb is *transitive active*:

He **will empty** the bucket.

3. If the subject acts but there is no direct object, the verb is *intransitive*:

The boat **sank**.

A verb expressing existence or state is *intransitive*.

C. RHETORICAL EFFECT OF THE PASSIVE

- 14.1 **The passive voice is effective if the receiver of an action is more important than the performer**, inasmuch as the subject of a sentence is grammatically more emphatic than the object. The passive construction is particularly useful if the agent is general or vague, or for some other reason should not be mentioned.

Crude: In Iowa they raise corn.

Improved: Corn is raised in Iowa.

Weak: The management will discharge any employee who violates this rule.

Emphatic: Any employee who violates this rule will be discharged.

- 14.2 If the receiver is not to be emphasized, however, the active voice is usually clearer, terser, and more forceful than the passive:

Awkward: Our destination was reached about six o'clock.

Improved: We reached our destination about six o'clock.

- 14.3 Avoid unnecessary shifting of voice in the same sentence:

Objectionable: He liked the first act, but the remainder of the play was not enjoyed by him.

Better: He liked the first act, but did not enjoy the remainder of the play.

The first version of this sentence is awkward because it involves an unpleasant shift in subject, whereas the same point of view should be maintained.

- 14.4 Sometimes, however, a change of voice is necessary for the retention of the proper subject:

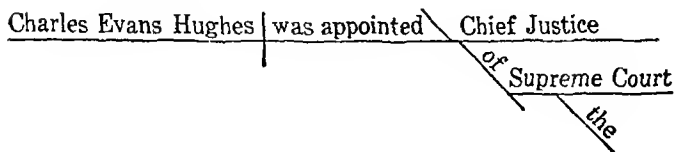
Awkward: In 1930 Mr. Relling ran for Congress, but Clyde Holmes defeated him.

Better: In 1930 Mr. Relling ran for Congress, but was defeated by Clyde Holmes.

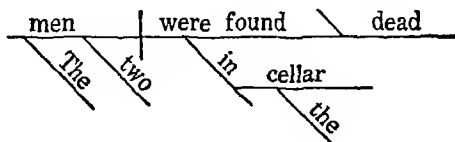
D. DIAGRAMMING THE SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT AFTER A PASSIVE VERB

A subjective complement after a passive verb is diagrammed in the same manner as one after an active verb:

Charles Evans Hughes was appointed Chief Justice of the Supreme Court.



The two men were found dead in the cellar.



The following sentences for diagramming contain subjective complements and objective complements. For the method of diagramming the latter, see Chapter 8, § I.

1. The child was named John.
2. They named their child John.
3. Enrico Caruso is considered *the greatest singer of modern times*.
4. Many people consider Enrico Caruso the greatest singer of modern times.
5. He was made nervous by the accident.

CHAPTER 15

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

A. MODE

Mode is the manner of conceiving and expressing action or existence. There are three modes—

1. The **indicative** is the mode of fact or reality (in the form of either a statement or a question):

Spain **became** a republic in April, 1931.

Is Spain a republic now?

2. The **imperative** is the mode of command or entreaty:

Please **pass** the sugar.

3. The **subjunctive** is the mode of unreality, uncertainty, doubt, condition, anticipation, obligation, or ideality. It is usually added to another statement in the indicative mode, *subjunctive* meaning "subjoining":

If he **were** given a million dollars, he would not know what to do with it.

B. FORMS OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE

In the active voice of verbs other than *to be*, the subjunctive differs from the indicative only in that the former does not add *s* in the third person singular of the present, has *have* (instead of *has*) in the third person singular of the present perfect, and lacks the future and the future perfect tenses:

If he **write** . . .

If he **have** written . . .

The verb *to be* has the following additional differences between the subjunctive and the indicative: *be* in all forms of the present subjunctive and *were* (instead of *was*) in the first and the third persons singular of the past subjunctive; this statement applies also to the corresponding forms of the passive voice of verbs, inasmuch as *to be* is used as the auxiliary there. In the table below, the divergent forms of the subjunctive of *to be* are in bold-faced type:

Subjunctive Mode

<i>Present Tense</i>		<i>Present Perfect Tense</i>	
If I be	If we be	If I have been	If we have been
If you be	If you be	If you have been	If you have been
If he be	If they be	If he have been	If they have been
<i>Past Tense</i>		<i>Past Perfect Tense</i>	
If I were	If we were	If I had been	If we had been
If you were	If you were	If you had been	If you had been
If he were	If they were	If he had been	If they had been

For the complete conjugation of verbs, see the Appendix.

Instead of the true subjunctive forms, certain auxiliaries (especially *may*, *might*, *should*) are frequently used.

C. SPECIFIC USES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE

Though the subjunctive is much less common in modern English than it was in the early stages of our language, it should still be employed in the following situations:

15.1 1. In conditions contrary to fact:

If he **were** here, he would agree (not "was").

If he **had been** [same form as the indicative] guilty, he would have confessed.

15.2 2. In wishes (both simple and contrary to fact or expectation):

Long live the King!

I wish I **were** at home.

15.3 3. After words expressing commands, recommendations, parliamentary motions, desire, necessity, obligation, or propriety:

His parents insist that he go to work.

The manager recommended to the Board of Directors that the wage scale **be** lowered.

I **desire** that she stay at home.

15.4 4. In clauses of purpose (usually with *may* or *might*):

Save while you are young, in order that you **may** not suffer want in your old age.

15.5 5. After *as if* and *as though*:

He talks as if he **were** the manager (not "was").

15.6 6. In concessions if the statement is merely a supposition:

Though he **beg** me on his knees, I will not forgive him.

Though he **were** at the brink of death, I would not forgive him.

In the first example the subjunctive implies that he is not begging me on his knees (though he may do so later), and in the second that he is not at the brink of death. The use of the indicative would imply that the statements in the clauses of concession were facts:

Though he **is** begging me on his knees, I will not forgive him.

Though he **is** at the brink of death, I will not forgive him.

15.7 In simple conditions either the indicative or the subjunctive may be employed, the latter usually suggesting a little more doubt than the former:

Indicative: If that **is** true, I can not go.

Subjunctive (suggests a little more doubt): If that **be** true, I can not go.

CHAPTER 16

THE PARTICIPLE

A. DEFINITION AND FORMS

Verbals are verb forms used with the functions of adjectives, adverbs, and nouns. They retain some of the characteristics of verbs, however, in that they have tense and may have modifiers, that the verbals of transitive verbs may take objects or be used in the passive voice, and that those of some verbs may be followed by subjective complements. There are three kinds: participles, gerunds, and infinitives.

A **participle** is a verbal with the function of an adjective; in other words, it modifies a substantive:

The *man sitting* at the head of the table *is* the president.

My *friend, seeing* me, *called* my name.

In these sentences *man* and *friend* are the subjects; *is* and *called* are the verbs. *Sitting* and *seeing* are participles, the former pointing out which man is meant, and the latter describing *friend* (indicating something about the state or condition of my friend as he called my name). In short, a participle—though *referring* to action, being, or state—does not, like a finite verb, make a statement, ask a question, or give a command, but, like an adjective, modifies a substantive by pointing it out or describing it.

The forms of the participle are as follows:

Active Voice—

Present: **Carrying** the little child, she soon reached home.

Perfect: **Having carried** the little child, she was tired.

Passive Voice—

Present: **Being carried**, the little child was contented.

Past: **Carried** all the way, the little child seemed heavy.

Perfect: **Having been carried** all the way, the little child still had clean shoes.

Observe that all the forms except the past participle end in *-ing*, and that in the forms consisting of more than one word, the first words add this suffix. The past participle usually ends in *-ed* (*-d*), *-t*, or *-en* (*-n*, *-ne*), or is without an ending: *work, worked; hate, hated; keep, kept; fall, fallen; bear, born; go, gone; sing, sung*. Notice that in some verbs the vowel in the root syllable of the past participle differs from that of the present indicative. To identify the form of the past participle, place *have*, *has*, or *had* before the verb:

I have worked.

He has gone.

In the formation of present active and of past participles, the following rules of spelling are helpful. If a monosyllable or a word accented on the last syllable ends in one consonant preceded by one vowel, the final consonant is doubled on the addition of a suffix beginning with a vowel (such as *-ing* and *-ed*): *sit, sitting; swim, swimming; pop, popped; snap, snapped; refer, referring*. (Conversely, there is no doubling if the word ends in more than one consonant, if a dissyllable is not accented on the last syllable, or if the final consonant is not preceded by only one vowel: *work, working; differ, differed; sleep, sleeping*. Although some dissyllables accented on the first syllable, such as *worship, travel*, and *quarrel*, permit the doubling of the final consonant, the

undoubled forms are preferable even in their case.) In the application of the rule, one should remember that *u* after *q* is not a vowel, and that *x* is a double consonant (*ks*): *equip*, *equipping*; *box*, *boxed*.

- 16.2 **If a word ends in silent *e*, it usually drops this letter on the addition of a suffix beginning with a vowel:** *write*, *writing*; *give*, *giving*. Verbs ending in *ee*, *oe*, or *ye*, however, retain the silent *e* in the present participle: *flee*, *fleeing*; *see*, *seeing*; *hoe*, *hoeing*; *shoe*, *shoeing*; *dye*, *dyeing* (the retention of the *e* prevents confusion with *dying* from *die*); *eye*, *eyeing*. *Singeing* (from *singe*) retains the *e* to avoid confusion with *singing* from *sing*. Verbs ending in *ie* usually change the *ie* to *y* on adding *ing*: *lie*, *lying*; *tie*, *tying*.

The tense of the participle (as well as that of the other verbals) is relative. The present participle generally indicates the same time as that of the main verb; the past and the perfect participles denote time preceding that of the main verb.

A **participial phrase** consists of a participle and one or more elements belonging to it, such as an object, a subjective complement, or an adverbial modifier:

With modifier: **Smiling cordially**, she extended her hand.

With subjective complement: **Being suspicious**, he rejected the offer.

With object and modifier: **Stopping the car at the curb**, Mr. Campbell quickly entered the house.

B. FUNCTIONS

Because the participle has adjectival properties, its functions are in the main those of adjectives. Its simplest construction is that of the pure adjective:

The **breaking** waves dashed high.

He was wearing a **torn** coat.

The man **sitting** at the head of the table is the president.

Believing that her husband was dead, Mrs. Hastings married again.

The participle is frequently used as a subjective complement (or "predicate adjective") or as an objective complement:

Subjective complement: The cloud seems **threatening**.

Objective complement: I found him **walking** in the park.

Some words that originally were participles are used as portions of compound conjunctions:

I shall make no objection, **provided that** you do not ask me again.

He sings very well indeed, **considering that** he has had so little training.

Besides having adjective function, participles appear in many of the compound forms of the verb. The present perfect, the past perfect, and the future perfect tenses in the active voice are a combination of the past participle with the corresponding forms of the present, the past, and the future tenses of *to have*: I have **taken**; I had **taken**; I shall have **taken**. In the passive voice the past participle is added to the corresponding forms of *to be*: I am **taken**; I was **taken**; I shall be **taken**; I have been **taken**; I had been **taken**; I shall have been **taken**. The present active participle is joined to the conjugation of *to be* to make progressive forms (which indicate a continuance of the action): I am **taking**; I was **taking**; I shall be **taking**; I have been **taking**; I had been **taking**; I shall have been **taking**.

C. THE NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE

The **nominative absolute** (frequently called "absolute expression") consists of an independent substantive modified by a participle, expressed or understood:

Expressed: **The team having been defeated**, we were emotionally and financially depressed.

Understood: **Breakfast [being] over**, we assembled in the library.

This construction is called "absolute" (that is, "free" or "loosened") because the substantive is not connected grammatically with the remainder of the sentence. *Team* and *breakfast* do not have any of the functions belonging to substantives within the regular structure of a clause, such as those of subject, direct object, or appositive. To recognize a nominative absolute, remember that the substantive is not grammatically a part of the clause proper. The following sentence, for instance, does not contain a nominative absolute, inasmuch as the substantive modified by the participle is the subject of the main verb:

My friend, seeing me, called my name.

So far as meaning is concerned, the nominative absolute is equivalent to an adverbial clause; in fact, it can be made into a clause by the addition of a conjunction and by the change of the participle into a finite form of the verb:

Because the team was defeated, . . .

After breakfast was over, . . .

Inasmuch as the nominative absolute does not have a finite verb, it is not a clause. Accordingly, a sentence containing one independent clause and a nominative absolute (without a dependent clause) is simple—not complex or compound.

- 16.3 As the name suggests, the substantive of the nominative absolute is in the nominative case:

He (not “him”) being absent, I had to do double work.

- 16.4 Though occasionally effective, the nominative absolute should be used sparingly. Because it has no grammatical connection with the remainder of the sentence and lacks a conjunction, it is usually not so precise and forceful as an adverbial clause.

D. PUNCTUATION OF THE PARTICIPLE AND THE NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE

- 16.5 Restrictive participles require no punctuation:

The man sitting at the head of the table is the president.
The road leading into town is paved.

- 16.6 Non-restrictive participles are set off from the rest of the sentence by commas:

The man, seeing his child, gave way to tears.
I called for you, expecting to find you in.
Encouraged by the coach, he improved his playing.

- 16.7 Do not use a period or a semicolon to separate a participle from the word modified:

Wrong: Though he has been out of college for several years, he still has a collegiate air about him. Wearing a collegiate hat and a collegiate haircut.
Right: Though he has been out of college for several years, he still has a collegiate air about him, wearing a collegiate hat and a collegiate haircut.

- 16.8 The nominative absolute, because of being in the nature of a parenthetical expression, should be set off by a comma (if complicated, by a dash). Inasmuch as it does not have a finite verb, it should not be treated as a complete sentence or as an independent clause:

Wrong: In my romantic moments I pictured myself as an adventurer in the barren regions of the far north. My only companions being the members of my faithful dog team.

Wrong: In my romantic moments I pictured myself as an adventurer in the barren regions of the far north; my only companions being the members of my faithful dog team.

Right: In my romantic moments I pictured myself as an adventurer in the barren regions of the far north, my only companions being the members of my faithful dog team.

E. DANGLING PARTICIPLES

16.9 *The most frequent error in the use of the participle is that of the dangling participle. Being an adjective in function, the participle must modify a substantive. A verbal adjective should not begin a sentence unless it modifies the subject. The following construction is incorrect, because the participle *turning* can not modify the subject, *library*:*

Turning the corner, the library comes into view.

Correct a sentence containing a dangling participle (1) by making the agent of the participle the subject of the sentence or (2) by replacing the participial phrase by some other construction:

1. Turning the corner, one sees the library.
2. As one turns the corner, the library comes into view.

Sometimes a participle placed near the end of a sentence is dangling—particularly in phrases expressing cause or result:

Dangling: The horse was lame caused by the loss of a shoe.

Improved: The horse was lame because of the loss of a shoe.

Improved (with emphasis on the cause): The lameness of the horse was caused by (or, was due to) the loss of a shoe.

Dangling: The field was wet, making forward passes almost impossible.

Improved: The field was so wet that forward passes were almost impossible.

Improved: Because of a wet field, forward passes were almost impossible.

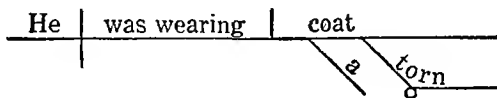
F. DIAGRAMMING THE PARTICIPLE

The participle is placed on a broken line with a circle at the junction of the two parts. The slanting line indicates the adjective nature of the participle, and the horizontal line the verbal nature.

Observe that the participle is written on both portions of the broken line.

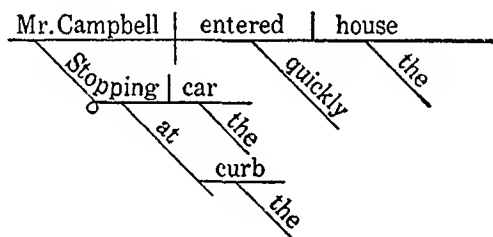
a. A participle modifying a noun or a pronoun is placed below the substantive:

He was wearing a **torn** coat.



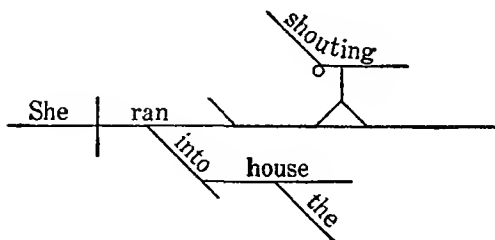
Objects, subjective complements, and modifiers of participles are diagrammed in the usual manner:

Stopping the car at the curb, Mr. Campbell quickly entered the house.



b. To avoid confusion, a participle used as a complement is placed on a stilt:

She ran into the house **shouting**.



c. The nominative absolute, because of being grammatically independent, is placed above the remainder of the sentence without being connected:

The dog following him, he went out into the night.

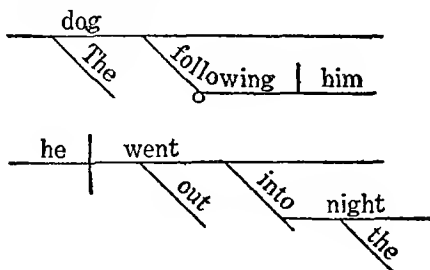


Diagram the following sentences:

1. The breaking waves dashed against the rocky coast.
2. Being very ignorant, the savages did not know the use of guns.
3. She seems depressed by grief.
4. The rain having stopped, the game was resumed.
5. All jewelry sold by this store is genuine.
6. Angered by criticisms of the alumni, the coach resigned.
7. Nelson sat nodding over his book.
8. The explanation given by the suspected man was not believed by the police.
9. Not having received a reply, I assume that my letter did not reach you.
10. His language being crude, Murphy impressed prospective employers unfavorably.
11. He was an effective speaker, his sincere manner winning the confidence of his hearers.
12. Having been deceived by you once, I shall not trust you again.

CHAPTER 17

THE GERUND

A. DEFINITION AND FORMS

The **gerund** is formed from a verb and used as a substantive (some grammarians calling it a "verbal noun"):

She stopped **helping** the poor.

Being a good student requires ability and work.

After **thriving** for twenty years, he went bankrupt.

The gerund always has the ending *-ing*, this suffix being added to the first word in the case of a compound form. Except that the gerund has nothing to correspond to the past participle, its forms are identical with those of the participle:

Active Voice—

Present: *Seeing* is believing.Perfect: He was sure of **having seen** it.

Passive Voice—

Present: He was afraid of **being seen**.Perfect: He was afraid of **having been seen**.

Obviously, the gerund can be distinguished from a participle only by the function. Remember that the gerund *is* a substantive, whereas the participle *modifies* a substantive.

Being a form of the verb, the gerund (like the participle) may have an object, a subjective complement, and adverbial modifiers:

Playing football is not easy (object).

Being a criminal is a form of insanity (subjective complement).

Driving slowly irritates me (adverbial modifier).

B. FUNCTIONS

The chief uses of the gerund are as follows:

1. Subject: *Seeing* is believing.
2. Subjective complement: *Seeing* is **believing**.
3. Object of a verb: I can not help **thinking** about it.
4. Object of a preposition: He was paid for **working**.
5. Appositive His old diversion—**watching** the ships in the bay—was now made impossible.

Being a substantive, the gerund may have adjective modifiers:

His walking rapidly tires me.

- 17.1 A noun or a pronoun used with a gerund (and preceding it) should normally be in the possessive case:

Wrong: Father objected to me going.

Right: Father objected to my going.

To test the construction, substitute a noun for the gerund:

Wrong: Father objected to me trip.

Right: Father objected to my trip.

The object of the preposition is *going*, not the personal pronoun, inasmuch as Father objected to my *going*, not to *me*. In the following example, on the other hand, the objective case is correct. The pronoun is the real object of *saw*, and the verbal is merely a participle used as an objective complement:

Right: I saw **him** walking down the street.

- 17.2 *Note.* Rule 17.1 has several exceptions. The noun or pronoun may be in the objective case (1) if it is a pronoun without a possessive form, (2) if it is a noun denoting an inanimate object or an abstract idea, or (3) if it is followed by a modifier of its own:

1. I was not aware of **these** being present.
2. They were afraid of the **boat** capsizing. (Preferable: They were afraid that the boat would capsize.)
3. The president was opposed to any **member** of the society leaving before the close of the business meeting.

Even in the case of nouns denoting animate beings, the objective is sometimes used by standard authors:

She would have despised the modern idea of **women** being equal to men.—Gaskell, *Cranford*.

C. THE DANGLING GERUND PHRASE

- A prepositional gerund phrase consists of a preposition and a gerund. If a *specific* agent is implied in connection with a gerund in the active voice, this agent should be the same as the subject of the finite verb or should be expressly indicated:

Agent same as subject: Father objected to going.

Agent expressly indicated: Father objected to **my** going.

In the first version of the following example, the gerund phrase is dangling:

Wrong: After showing us our papers, **we** were dismissed.

Right: After showing us our papers, the **instructor** dismissed us. (The subject of the finite verb has been made the same as the agent of the gerund.)

Right: After the **instructor** **had shown** us our papers, we were dismissed. (The dangling gerund phrase has been replaced by an adverbial clause.)

- 17.4 In the passive form of the gerund, the *receiver* should be the same as the subject of the finite verb or should be expressly indicated. The previous example could also be corrected by the use of a passive gerund:

After **being shown** our papers, we were dismissed.

- 17.5 If the action of a gerund is *general*, the agent need not be expressed, provided that there is no noun that might be falsely interpreted as an agent:

Right: Winter is the best time for **pruning** trees.

Right: **Attending** a medical school is very strenuous.

D. PUNCTUATION OF THE GERUND

- 17.6 In most of its uses the gerund does not require any punctuation. Because of having the function of a noun, it is usually an integral part of its clause. The one exception is the gerund used as a non-restrictive appositive, which, like other non-restrictive appositives, is set off by commas, dashes, or a colon (see rules 10.6, 10.8, and 10.9):

My hobby—collecting stamps—is very fascinating.
I have a very fascinating hobby: collecting stamps.

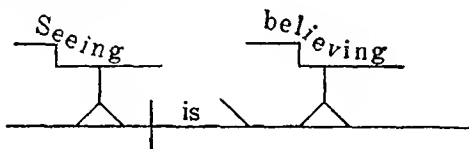
- 17.7 A prepositional gerund phrase standing at the beginning of a sentence should always be set off by a comma, even if short:

By working all summer, he earned enough money for his school expenses this year.

E. DIAGRAMMING THE GERUND

The gerund is placed on a stepped line set on a stilt. Objects, subjective complements, and modifiers of gerunds are diagrammed in the usual manner. Adjective modifiers are placed before the step and adverbial modifiers after it.

Seeing is believing.



Father objects to my using the car this week.

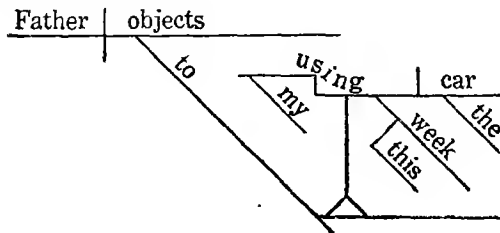


Diagram the following. In the first ten sentences the verbals are all gerunds; in the remaining sentences, some of the verbals are gerunds, and some are participles.

1. Reading novels is enjoyable.
2. Many farmers have ceased keeping cows.
3. One of Roosevelt's hobbies was hunting big game.
4. The manager has announced his intention of resigning his position.
5. He denied having struck you.
6. There is no necessity of your being here.
7. My chief pastime—swimming in the Gulf of Mexico—almost caused my death.
8. Stop looking at the clock every minute.
9. Cranston resents being criticized by you.
10. Playing chess requires much leisure time.
11. The bell having rung, the girls took out their vanity cases.
12. All the tenors were singing.
13. Going home for spring vacation is hardly worthwhile.
14. The Vikings, sailing in long, shallow boats, cruised up the rivers and attacked inland cities.
15. A person entering a large forest should carry a waterproof package of matches.
16. His fumbling the ball on the first play disheartened the team.
17. The stolen car was found in Springfield.
18. Driven from their homes by the flood, many families are suffering want.
19. I was very lonely at Banning, the days seeming ages.
20. Anybody lost in the woods should avoid wasting his strength.

CHAPTER 18

THE INFINITIVE

A. DEFINITION AND FORMS

The **infinitive**, like the participle and the gerund, is a verbal. Though made from a verb and *referring* to action or being, it does not *assert* such action or being, but is used with the function of an adjective, an adverb, or a noun: *to see, to think, to run, to find, to write*. *To* (originally a real preposition) is now felt merely as the sign of the infinitive. It is frequently omitted, especially after such verbs as *help, make, bid, feel, see, hear, dare, need*:

You need not **come** so early.

The infinitive has forms for two tenses and both voices:

Active Voice—

Present: To see.

Perfect: To have seen.

Passive Voice—

Present: To be seen.

Perfect: To have been **seen**.

In the active voice, there are also forms for the progressive:

Present: To be seeing.

Perfect: To have been seeing.

The present infinitive generally indicates the same time as that of the finite verb. The perfect infinitive denotes time preceding that of the finite verb.

B. FUNCTIONS

The infinitive may be a modifier—either adjective or adverbial:

Adjective modifier: This is the *time to act*.

Adverbial modifier (of purpose): He *stopped* to eat his dinner.

The main substantive uses of the simple infinitive are as follows:

1. Subject of a verb: "**To err is human.**"
2. Delayed subject: It is easy **to drive** a car.
3. Object of a verb: He liked **to sing**.
4. Subjective complement: Your duty is **to go**.
5. Appositive: His greatest joy, **to see his name in print**, has been realized.
6. Object of a preposition: He had no choice but **to obey**.

The infinitive is also used with a noun or a pronoun in a special **objective-infinitive** construction after verbs of commanding, wishing, advising, perceiving, believing, and the like:

I want **him** to sing.

I believe the cashier **to be** honest.

After some verbs—such as *make*, *let*, *watch*, *see*, and *hear*—the infinitive is used without *to*:

I heard **him** sing.

The sheriff let the prisoner **escape**.

The whole objective-infinitive construction—somewhat in the manner of a noun clause—is the object of the finite verb (*want*, *believe*, *heard*, *let*). **The noun or the pronoun** (*him*, *cashier*, *prisoner*), though called the "subject" of the infinitive, **must be in the objective case. A noun or pronoun after *to be* in an objective-infinitive construction should also be in the objective case—in agreement with the objective "subject" of *to be*:**

She thought *him* to be **me**. (But: It seems to be **he**.)

Sometimes the infinitive is used parenthetically (that is, absolutely):

To tell the truth, I have never seen him before.

To make a long story short, he has been suspended.

- 18.2 Observe that the parenthetical infinitive is set off by a comma.

C. THE DANGLING INFINITIVE

- 18.3 An adverbial infinitive should not be permitted to dangle. As in the case of the participle and the prepositional gerund phrase, the relationship between the infinitive and the remainder of the sentence should be immediately clear:

Dangling: To make rapid progress, lessons should be prepared systematically.

Improved: To make rapid progress, one should prepare his lessons systematically. (The subject of the clause has been made the same as the agent of the infinitive.)

Improved: To make rapid progress, prepare your lessons systematically. (The subject of the clause, *you* understood, has been made the same as the agent of the infinitive.)

Improved: If rapid progress is to be made, one's lessons should be prepared systematically. (The infinitive construction has been replaced by an adverbial clause.)

D. THE SPLIT INFINITIVE

- 18.4 The split infinitive—a construction in which the sign *to* is separated from the infinitive proper by an adverb or a phrase—is permissible if its avoidance would result in lack of clearness or in awkwardness:

Clear: The dramatic coach wants the manager to only rent the costumes.

Confusing: The dramatic coach wants the manager only to rent the costumes. (*Only* could be interpreted as modifying *manager*: The dramatic coach wants the *manager* only to rent the costumes.)

Misleading: The dramatic coach wants the manager to rent only the costumes. (*Only* would normally be read with *costumes*.)

- 18.5 Frequently, however, the split infinitive is awkward:

Awkward: To justly decide the matter was hard.

Improved: To decide the matter **justly** was hard.

Because of the difficulty of determining when the split infinitive is justifiable and because of the prejudice of many people against it, the student is advised to use the construction sparingly.

E. VERBALS AND SEQUENCE OF TENSE

- 18.6 Do not use the perfect tense of a verbal unless the time to be expressed is before that of the main verb:

Wrong: He expected to have seen you at the station.

Right: He expected to see you at the station.

The perfect infinitive (*to have seen*) depending on a verb in the past tense (*expected*) is equivalent to the past perfect tense of a finite verb:

Wrong: He expected that he had seen you at the station.

Right: He expected that he **would see** you at the station.

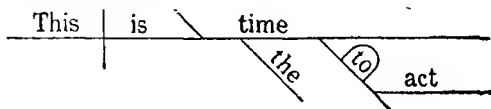
In the following sentence, the perfect infinitive is correct, because the time of the meeting is before that of the statement.

Right: I am glad to have met you.

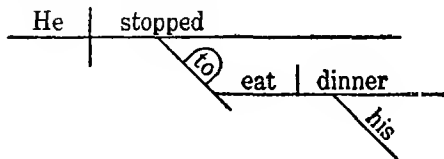
F. DIAGRAMMING THE INFINITIVE

1. Infinitives used as adjective and adverbial modifiers are diagrammed like regular adjective and adverbial phrases, *to* being placed on the slanting line and the verb proper on the horizontal line; to indicate that *to* is not a regular preposition, however, a "hood" is placed over it. Objects, subjective complements, and modifiers of infinitives are diagrammed in the usual manner.

This is the time to act.

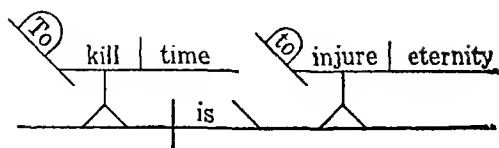


He stopped to eat his dinner.



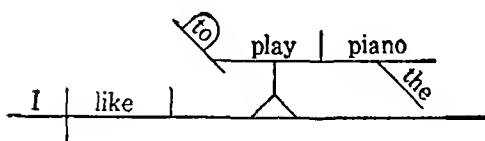
2. Infinitives with substantive function are set on stilts.
 a. Subject and subjective complement—

To kill time is to injure eternity.



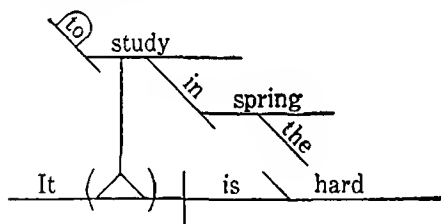
b. Object of a verb—

I like to play the piano.



c. Delayed subject—

It is hard to study in the spring.



3. The whole objective-infinitive construction is placed on a stilt
The infinitive itself is set on a second stilt separated from the
objective subject by a vertical crossline.

I want him to sing.

I heard him sing.

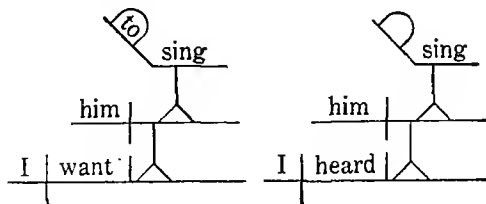


Diagram the following:

1. We refuse to surrender our principles.
2. To delay would be dangerous.
3. Some of the books to be sold are first editions.
4. It is advisable to carry a notebook.
5. He had one purpose—to break the world's record.
6. To win the affection of children, treat them with kindness.
7. The teacher expects the students to take notes.
8. He is planning to take a party to Europe.
9. I saw him enter.
10. I dare not go.
11. His wife does not permit him to smoke in the house.
12. Do not let him cheat you.
13. I am attending college to secure a liberal education.
14. Richard II, realizing that he was powerless, promised to accept the demands of the peasants.
15. Her being in Judge Brack's power caused Hedda Gabler to kill herself.
16. Living in the mountains, the gypsies occasionally came to the cities to sell their smuggled goods.
17. To get good seats, we came early.
18. The coach compelled him to play.
19. The queer noises made him run.
20. It is not easy to learn to speak French.

CHAPTER 19

TROUBLESOME VERBS

A. PRINCIPAL PARTS

The **principal parts** of a verb are (1) the present stem, (2) the past tense, and (3) the past participle:

1) <i>Present Stem</i>	2) <i>Past Tense</i>	3) <i>Past Participle</i>
sing	sang	sung
kill	killed	killed

If these three parts are known, all the forms of the verb (except in the case of *to be*) can be constructed. The present stem is used for the present active indicative and subjunctive (with the addition of *s* in the third person singular of the indicative), the future active (with *shall* or *will*), the imperative, the present active infinitive (frequently preceded by *to*), the present active participle (with the addition of *ing*), and the present active gerund (with the addition of *ing*). The second principal part is used for all forms of

the past tense in the active voice (both indicative and subjunctive). The third principal part, besides serving as the past passive participle, enters into the composition of all the other passive forms (with the auxiliary *to be*) and of all the forms of the perfect active tenses and verbals (with the auxiliary *to have*). For the complete conjugation of the verb, see the Appendix.

The first principal part may be identified by placing *to* before the verb without an auxiliary (*to sing*), the second by using the verb in the past tense (*I sang*), and the third by combining the word with *have*, *has*, or *had* (*I have sung*):

1) <i>Present Stem</i>	2) <i>Past Tense</i>	3) <i>Past Participle</i>
(to) sing	(I) sang	(I have) sung
(to) kill	(I) killed	(I have) killed

B. CLASSES OF VERBS

Most verbs can be classified into two main groups: strong and weak. **Strong** verbs form their principal parts by changing the vowel of the main syllable; the past tense has no ending (except sometimes a silent *e*), and the past participle either adds *en* (*n*, *ne*) or is without ending:

steal	stole	stolen
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
sing	sang	sung

Weak verbs have their second and third principal parts the same. Most examples of this class add *ed*, *d*, or *t* without changing their vowels (except for an occasional shortening):

kill	killed	killed
seal	sealed	sealed
rake	raked	raked
sleep	slept	slept
carry	carried	carried

Some weak verbs have developed irregularities. A few of these, besides adding *d* or *t*, make other changes:

sell	sold	sold
tell	told	told
teach	taught	taught
buy	bought	bought
think	thought	thought
bring	brought	brought
seek	sought	sought

Many weak verbs ending in *d* or *t* have contracted their second and third principal parts. These verbs consist of three groups. One group—with a short vowel in the present—has all three parts the same:

set	set	set
shed	shed	shed
split	split	split

A second group—with a long vowel in the present—has all three parts the same except for shortening of the vowel:

feed	fed	fed
meet	met	met
lead	led	led

A third group—with *nd* or *ld* in the present—changes the *d* to *t*.

send	sent	sent
build	built	built

A few verbs are partly weak and partly strong:

show	showed	shown (or, showed)
swell	swelled	swollen (or, swelled)
do	did	done

Note. Strong verbs and irregular weak verbs are frequently called “irregular,” and regular weak verbs “regular.”

The terms *strong* and *weak* are fanciful. They were applied to their respective classes because the strong verb was thought of as having the strength within itself to form its principal parts, and the weak verb as needing the help of an added element.

C. TROUBLESOME VERBS

19.1 Memorize the principal parts of the following verbs thoroughly:

bear	bore	borne
(In the sense of “given birth to” without <i>by</i> , the past participle is <i>born</i> .)		
bid (command)	bade	bidden
bid (offer)	bid	bid
broadcast	broadcast	broadcast
	(not <i>broadcasted</i>)	
burst	burst (not <i>bursted</i>)	burst

dive	dived (not <i>dove</i>)	dived
do	did (not <i>done</i>)	done
drink	drank	drunk
get	got	got (not <i>gotten</i>)
go	went	gone (not <i>went</i>)
hang (execute)	hanged	hanged
hang (suspend)	hung	hung
lay (place)	laid	laid
lie (recline)	lay	lain
lie (tell an untruth)	lied	lied
raise (elevate)	raised	raised
rise (become higher)	rose	risen
set (place)	set	set
sit (be in a sitting position)	sat	sat

19.2 Do not use *to raise* (instead of *to rise*) in the sense of “to become higher”:

Wrong: The balloon has raised from the ground.

Right: The balloon has **risen** from the ground.

Wrong: The water in the river is raising.

Right: The water in the river is **rising**.

To raise is a transitive verb and, accordingly, requires an object except when used in the passive voice; it means “to *cause* to rise, to *make* higher, to *elevate*,” “to *arouse*,” “to *produce*”:

Please **raise** the *window*.

He **raises** pedigreeed *dogs*.

I must **raise** my *grades* next year.

Brown's salary has been **raised** [passive].

To rise, on the other hand, is intransitive and hence does not take an object; its fundamental meaning is “to become higher,” such as “to go upward” (as smoke or a balloon), “to assume an upright position” (as a person), “to leave one's bed,” “to appear above the eastern horizon” (as the sun), “to puff up or swell” (as dough):

The airplane is **rising** rapidly.

Prices **rose** considerably during the World War.

The speaker has **risen** from his chair.

The sun **rises** in the east.

The cake did not **rise**.

The Missouri River **rises** in the Rocky Mountains.

- 19.3 Do not substitute *to lay* (*lay*; *laid*; *laid*) for *to lie* (*lie*; *lay*; *lain*) in the sense of "to have or assume a recumbent or horizontal position":

Wrong: You may lay down on the couch.

Right: You may lie down on the couch.

Wrong: My notebook was laying on the floor.

Right: My notebook was lying on the floor.

(The difficulty of distinguishing between these two verbs is increased by the fact that, except in the third person singular, the present tense of *to lay* is the same as the past of *to lie*.) *To lay*, like *to raise*, is transitive and hence requires an object except when used in the passive voice; its primary meaning is "to place or put":

Please lay the letter on my desk.

The rain has laid the dust.

A new cable must be laid soon [passive].

In the following idiom, *to lay* is used without an object (although eggs might be said to be understood):

Hens lay better in the spring than in cold weather.

To lie, like *to rise*, is an intransitive verb and, accordingly, does not take an object; its chief meanings are "to have or assume a recumbent or horizontal position, to recline," "to be inactive":

The dog is lying on the rug.

An unopened letter lay on his desk.

This field has lain fallow for a year.

- 19.4 Do not use *to set* (*set*; *set*; *set*) for *to sit* (*sit*; *sat*; *sat*) in the sense of "to be in a sitting position":

Wrong: The old man would set in his armchair for hours.

Right: The old man would sit in his armchair for hours.

To sit (except in two uncommon idioms) is intransitive and, accordingly, has no object; it means "to be in a sitting position," "to perch" (as a bird), "to incubate eggs" (as a hen), "to pose" for a picture, "to belong to an official body" (as, to sit in Congress), "to be in session" (as a legislature or a court), "to fit" well or ill (as a coat). *To set* also is intransitive in some of its uses, as in the sense of "to pass below the western horizon" (as the sun), "to harden" (as cement), "to start" (as, to set out), "to apply oneself" (as, to set to work), "to point out game" (as a dog),

“to fit” well or ill (as a coat—this last idiom being considered improper by many):

The moon **set** at about two o'clock last night.

The workmen are waiting for the cement to **set**.

Though not sanctioned by grammarians, the following idiom is in common use:

The hen is **setting**.

In its other common meanings—such as “to place, adjust, arrange”—*to set* is transitive and hence requires an object except when in the passive voice:

We **set** the alarm clock for 5:00 A.M.

The broken bone was not **set** properly [passive].

Summary. *To raise, to lay, and to set* are transitive (except for certain idioms of *to lay* and *to set*) and require objects, whereas *to rise, to lie, and to sit* are intransitive and do not take objects. The fundamental meanings of the former group are “to cause to rise,” “to cause to lie,” “to cause to sit.” (*To raise, to lay, and to set* are weak verbs derived from the strong verbs *to rise, to lie, and to sit*, respectively.)

CHAPTER 20

REVIEW OF GRAMMATICAL ELEMENTS

A. SUMMARY OF GRAMMATICAL ELEMENTS

The main grammatical functions and elements are tabulated below. The citations in parentheses refer to the sections of the previous chapters in which the respective elements are discussed.

I. Substantive (is used as subject, subjective complement, direct object, indirect object, objective complement, object of a preposition, appositive [really an adjective modifier], nominative of address, exclamation, retained object, substantive of a nominative absolute, “subject” of an objective-infinitive construction)—

Noun (see Chapter 1, § C): The **sun** is shining.

Pronoun (1, D): **She** died this morning.

Adjective (8, A): Blessed are the **meek**.—*Matthew* 5:5.

Noun clause (12, A): I heard **that you were sick**.

Gerund (17, A-B): **Playing** football is strenuous.

Infinitive (18, A-B): He likes to **hear** good music.

Objective-infinitive construction (18, B): I watched **them practice**.

II. Adjective modifier (describes a substantive, points it out, or specifies how many)—

Adjective (2, A): The **early** bird catches the worm.

Possessive pronoun (9, A): **His** daughter is a trained nurse.

Adjective noun (9, C, 3): **Mary's** cousin is a **university** graduate.

Appositive (8, F): Leila Tate, a **stenographer**, inherited a million dollars.

Adjective prepositional phrase (3, B): Vienna is the capital of Austria.

Adjective clause (10, B): Those **who have finished their work** may leave.

Participle (16, A-B): The **murdered** man was a gangster.

Infinitive (18, A-B): Education is impossible without a desire to **learn**.

III. Adverbial modifier (modifies a verb, an adjective, an adverb, a preposition, or a conjunction; expresses relationships of place, time, manner, degree or comparison, condition, concession, result, cause or reason, purpose, contrast)—

Adverb (2, B): King Alfred attacked the Vikings **bravely**.

Adverbial noun (9, C, 2): The battle continued all **day**.

Adverbial prepositional phrase (3, B): Roosevelt fought **in the Spanish-American War**.

Adverbial clause (11, A-B): **When the cat's away**, the mice will play.

Infinitive (18, A-B): I have come to **borrow a book**.

IV. Finite verb (makes a statement or asks a question concerning the subject, or gives a command) (1, E; 4, B)—

The sun **is shining**.

Is the sun **shining**?

Watch your **step**.

V. Connective (joins elements)—

Preposition (3, A): Roosevelt fought **in** the Spanish-American War.

Coördinating conjunction (5, C): You **and** Colton should go.

Subordinating conjunction (11, B): **If** there is overproduction of a commodity, its price drops.

Relative pronoun (1, D; 10, B): Those **who** have finished their work may leave.

Relative adverb (10, B): The house **where** he was born is still standing.

VI. Parenthetical expression (does not have a grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence)—

Nominative of address (8, G): **John**, where are your skates?

Nominative absolute (16, C): **The vacation being over**, we returned to college.

Transitional expression (5, D): He is a good student; **in fact**, he is the most brilliant member of the class.

Interjection: **O dear**, what shall I do?

Miscellaneous: **No**, he was not there; this fact, it **seems to me**, shows his lack of interest.

B. REVIEW OF FRAGMENTARY SENTENCES

20.1 Such elements as appositives, prepositional phrases, participles, nominatives absolute, gerund phrases, infinitives, and dependent clauses should not be punctuated as if they were separate sentences. They should be joined to the sentences to which they belong or be changed into independent clauses. As was emphasized in Chapter 4, a complete sentence must contain a subject and a finite verb—expressed or understood. A participle, a gerund, or an infinitive can not serve as the main verb of a clause.

Wrong: Hauptmann's *The Weavers* shows a series of pictures. Stark, heart-rending **photographs** of the sordidness and tragedy in the lives of the poor loom workers. (The second part has no verb; *photographs* is really an appositive modifying *pictures*.)

Right: Hauptmann's *The Weavers* shows a series of pictures—stark, heart-rending photographs of the sordidness and tragedy in the lives of the poor loom workers. (The dash is used because of the comma within the appositional passage.)

Wrong: *Lady Windermere's Fan* (Wilde) is a delightful comedy. **Having** very witty and clever dialogue. (*Having*, which is merely a participle, modifies *Lady Windermere's Fan*.)

Right: *Lady Windermere's Fan* (Wilde) is a delightful comedy, having very witty and clever dialogue.

Right, but choppy: *Lady Windermere's Fan* (Wilde) is a delightful comedy. It **has** very witty and clever dialogue.

Wrong: Personal gain **has** been the chief ideal of every one since industry began. **The aim being** to give to society as little as possible and to take away as much as one can **without** damaging himself. (The second part is a nominative absolute, inasmuch as *being* is merely a participle, not a finite verb.)

Right: Personal gain has been the chief ideal of every one since industry began, the aim being to give to society as little as possible and to take away as much as one can without damaging himself.

Right: Personal gain has been the chief ideal of every one since industry began. The aim is to give to society as little as possible and to take away as much as one can without damaging himself.

Wrong: We have reason to be proud of our undefeated team. Especially because the schedule has been extremely long and strenuous. (The second part is an adverbial clause.)

Right: We have reason to be proud of our undefeated team, especially because the schedule has been extremely long and strenuous.

For a brief comment on elliptical sentences, see Chapter 4, § D.

C. REVIEW OF DIAGRAMMING

Diagram the following sentences:

1. The University of Chicago has conferred an honorary degree upon Jane Addams, a very famous American woman.
2. Do you know that she started Hull House in 1889?
3. This settlement house being successful, forty-three others have been established in Chicago.
4. To protect the immigrant has always been one of the purposes of Hull House.
5. In that room stands a gigantic clock, which my grandfather brought from Switzerland.
6. What I tell you is the truth.
7. It is difficult to understand his action.
8. It is said that he has become a very successful man.
9. I expect to take postgraduate work after I get my Bachelor's degree.
10. Working one's way through college develops initiative.
11. The injured woman was rushed to St. Luke's Hospital, and her daughter was notified immediately.
12. That I can not learn to play this irritates me.
13. John, will you take me to a place where I can rest?
14. There is a group of French musicians who are doing commendable work.
15. When visitors approach, the bear crouches under the ledge, sniffing and whining.
16. To take aerial photographs successfully, one should have a knowledge of three sciences.
17. If you want to see a good picture this evening, George, you should go to the Cordova.
18. Quickly seizing his hat, he rushed down the stairs and jumped into his car.
19. I have warned him twice; nevertheless, he continues to neglect his duties.
20. He was the cause of my being rejected by the society.
21. My opinion is that the defendant is guilty.
22. He could not resist taking the money.
23. Rockne developed great football teams.
24. Because this will be the last meeting of the year, every member should be present.

CHAPTER 21

PUNCTUATION

A. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the rules of punctuation are grouped according to the marks used. Many of the rules have been treated in previous chapters; in such cases the discussions are not repeated here, but the original rule numbers are given in parentheses. For the sake of completeness, rules are here added to cover the situations not previously treated.

A summary of the punctuation of clauses is to be found in Chapter 13, § E. The punctuation of the following is treated in the places indicated below:

Sentences—Chapter 1, § H.

Independent clauses (compound sentence)—Chapter 5, §§ D, E, F.

Adjective modifiers (restrictive and non-restrictive)—Chapter 10, § C.

Adverbial clauses—Chapter 11, § C.

Noun clauses—Chapter 12, § B.

Participles—Chapter 16, § D.

Gerunds—Chapter 17, § D.

B. THE PERIOD

- 21.1 A declarative or an imperative sentence should end with a period (1.7).
- 21.2 An abbreviation should be followed by a period: *Mr., Dr., Mo., N.D., A.M., etc., pp., math., fut., e.g.* After *per cent* the period is usually omitted.
- 21.3 A portion of a sentence should not be separated from the remainder of the sentence by a period. This faulty construction is called a "fragmentary sentence" (4.1, 4.2, 20.1).

C. THE QUESTION MARK AND THE EXCLAMATION POINT

- 21.4 An interrogative sentence should be followed by a question mark (1.8).
- 21.5 An indirect question should not be followed by a question mark:

Wrong: He asked where I was going?

Right: He asked where I was going.

- 21.6 If a sentence in question form is really a polite request and contains *please* or *kindly*, some writers and publishers use a period:

Will you please send me your uncle's address.

- 21.7 Doubt concerning the accuracy of something in the text (such as a date) is expressed by a question mark enclosed in parentheses:

Chaucer was born in 1340(?).

- 21.8 To call attention to irony or other humor by means of a question mark is ordinarily not in good taste:

Objectionable: I thank you very much for your courteous (?) treatment.

Better: I thank you very much for your courteous treatment.

If the irony can not be recognized without such label, it should be abandoned.

- 21.9 An exclamation point is placed after an exclamatory sentence (1.9), a strong interjection, or anything else in the nature of an exclamation:

Ouch!

A touchdown! a touchdown!

D. THE COMMA

- 21.10 A coordinating conjunction joining two independent clauses of a compound sentence is normally preceded by a comma (5.1). If the compound sentence is very short and the meaning is clear without the comma, no punctuation is needed (5.2). If independent clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction are long and complicated, a semicolon should be used (see 21.22 below).

- 21.11 A comma is not sufficient to separate independent clauses not joined by a conjunction (see 21.21 below). The violation of this rule is called a *comma splice*.

- 21.12 A long adverbial element at the beginning of a sentence is normally set off by a comma. An adverbial clause in initial position should be so punctuated (11.3) unless it is very short and the comma is not needed for clearness (11.4). An introductory adverbial phrase should be set off if it is long (3.2);

an initial prepositional gerund phrase or an initial adverbial infinitive should always be thus separated (17.7).

- 21.13 Inserted elements like the following are usually set off by commas:

Then, and not till then, can we lay claim to true culture.

Inspector Arthur L. Cross, after Tingley had been questioned for hours, formally asked that the prisoner be held for extradition.

- 21.14 If adjective clauses are non-restrictive, they are set off by commas; if they are restrictive, they do not require any punctuation (10.3). This distinction applies also to appositives (10.5, 10.6, 10.7), participles (16.5, 16.6), other adjective modifiers (10.4), and final adverbial clauses (11.5 to 11.10). If non-restrictive expressions (such as appositives) are complicated—especially if they contain commas within themselves (see 10.8 and 10.12) or if they are noun clauses (see 12.4)—dashes are preferable. With appositives in final position, colons are frequently desirable (10.9, 10.12, 12.5, 17.6).

- 21.15 If a series is in the form of *a, b, and c*, a comma is placed after each member save the last (1.4). The comma is used before the *and* unless the members immediately before and after the conjunction are not to be separated (1.5). Except in the case of a complicated or strongly contrasted compound predicate, no comma is ordinarily used between the members of a two-part compound element (1.3, 1.2).

- 21.16 If two consecutive adjectives are coördinate, they are separated by a comma: *a kind, devoted father; an old, dilapidated house; a brilliant, industrious student*. *Kind* and *devoted* are similar in meaning, a *dilapidated* condition is often the result of *oldness*, and *brilliant* and *industrious* are closely parallel as characteristics having an important bearing on accomplishment. One would not expect a devoted father to be unkind or a dilapidated house to be new; and if a brilliant student is lazy, one usually thinks of a contrast (*a brilliant but lazy student*). On the other hand, if two consecutive adjectives are not coördinate, no punctuation is necessary: *a dark brown suit; an old white house; a brilliant public speaker*. *Dark* really qualifies *brown*; *old* and *white* are not logically parallel (one referring to age and the other to color), and *brilliant* modifies *public* and *speaker* combined (the combination being equivalent to a compound noun). A brown suit may be light brown,

a white house may be new, and a public speaker may be dull. As a means of recognizing coordinate adjectives, observe that they have a pause between them in speaking (*an old // dilapidated house*), whereas adjectives not in coordinate relationship do not (*an old white house*). As another test, notice that coordinate adjectives permit the insertion of *and*: *a kind and devoted father*, *an old and dilapidated house*, and *a brilliant and industrious student* make sense, whereas *a dark and brown suit*, *an old and white house*, and *a brilliant and public speaker* are ridiculous.

- 21.17 If a direct quotation is short, especially if it consists of not more than one sentence, it is usually separated from the verb of saying by a comma (12.6). (For the punctuation of a longer quotation, see 21.25 below.) In a quotation divided into two parts by the verb of saying or its equivalent, place commas both before and after the intervening words if a comma or no punctuation would be employed between the two parts without the expression of saying; but if a semicolon or a period would be required between the separated parts, retain the semicolon or the period just before the second portion (12.8). With an indirect quotation, no punctuation should be used (12.9).

- 21.18 Elements that might erroneously be read together should be separated by a comma (3.2). Frequently, however, the position of one of the elements should be changed (13.1).

- 21.19 Slightly parenthetical elements and similar constructions should be set off by commas:

- a) Nominatives of address (8.2).
- b) Nominatives absolute (16.8).
- c) Mild interjections: *Well*, *here we are*.
- d) Transitional adverbs and phrases (exclusive of *hence*, *so*, *initial then*, and a few others) (5.6, 5.7).
- e) Other sentence modifiers, such as *yes*, *unfortunately*, and *incidentally*: *No, I am not going*.
- f) Expressions like *it seems to me* (5.10) and *aren't you* (5.11).
- g) The parts of place names and addresses (the state or country should be separated from the city, and the city from the street, but not the street from the street number): *My address is 6231 Cottage Grove Avenue, Chicago, Illinois*. A comma should also be placed *after* the name of the state or country, provided that no other mark (except a period with an abbreviation) is required there: *Milan, Italy, is an important musical center*.
- h) The year in a date containing both year and month: *July 4, 1776*.

- i) The parts of a reference: *Atlantic Monthly*, CXLVIII, 710-18 (means "Vol. CXLVIII, pp. 710-18").
- j) Titles and similar expressions following names of persons: Fermen Layton Pickétt, Ph. D.; Arthur L. Wells, Jr.

A parenthetical expression like *you know* coming between a relative pronoun and its verb needs no punctuation unless there is a distinct pause (10.14). *O* (a particle sometimes used with a nominative of address) takes no punctuation, whereas *oh* (an interjection) is followed by a comma or an exclamation point. For the use of dashes and marks of parenthesis with parenthetical material, see 21.30 and 21.34 below.

- 21.20 **Commas should not be employed without definite reasons.** For instance, do not insert a comma before an indirect quotation (12.9) or needlessly separate the subject from the predicate:

Wrong: Two large lions from the jungles of Africa, have just been acquired, by the circus.

Right: Two large lions from the jungles of Africa have just been acquired by the circus.

E. THE SEMICOLON

- 21.21 **If two independent clauses of a compound sentence are not joined by a conjunction, a semicolon is required between them** (5.4, 5.8, 5.12, 5.13, 13.8). The presence of a transitional expression like *hence*, *moreover*, or *in fact* does not make the semicolon unnecessary (5.5, 5.9). Such clauses may also be punctuated as two sentences, the choice between the semicolon and the period depending upon how closely they are related in thought. If the clauses are closely related, the semicolon should be used between them; otherwise, the period is preferable. Accordingly, the semicolon is useful for indicating that two or more grammatically independent clauses have a closer connection with each other than with the adjacent clauses or sentences.
- 21.22 **A semicolon is used before a coördinating conjunction joining two independent clauses if they are long and complicated, especially if they contain commas within themselves** (5.3).
- 21.23 **The semicolon may also be used between equal sentence elements of lesser rank than independent clauses if such elements contain commas within themselves:**

Confusing: I spent my childhood in the following cities: Galesburg, Illinois, Washington, Iowa, Jackson, Mississippi, and Hartford, Connecticut.

Immediately clear: I spent my childhood in the following cities: Galesburg, Illinois; Washington, Iowa; Jackson, Mississippi; and Hartford, Connecticut.

For another example, see the quotation from Robert Louis Stevenson in Chapter 25, § C.

F. THE COLON

- 21.24 A colon is used to introduce a list or a series of particulars (sometimes a single word, statement, or question):

The leading naval powers of the world are as follows: the United States, Great Britain, Japan, France, and Italy.

He passed in but one course: Sociology I.

This car has three distinct advantages: the initial cost is low, the gasoline consumption is small, and repairs are readily accessible.

I will withdraw my suit on only one condition: Barlow must apologize to me publicly.

The issue resolves itself to this: Are we willing to surrender our principles?

Distinguish carefully between the colon and the semicolon. The colon, which introduces, separates elements of unequal rank; the semicolon always separates elements of the same rank. The portion following a colon is usually an appositive (10.9), a construction equivalent to an appositive, or a quotation (see 21.25).

- 21.25 A colon is used to introduce a long or formal quotation (12.7).
- 21.26 A colon follows the salutation of a formal letter:

Dear Mr. Ryan:
Gentlemen:

- 21.27 A colon is placed between the hour and the minute in a time indication and between the chapter and the verse in a Bible reference: 10:20 A.M.; *Isaiah* 9:6.

G. THE DASH

- 21.28 A dash is used to mark the breaking off of a sentence before the end or to indicate a faltering manner of speaking:

As I was going to class yesterday morning—*isn't anybody listening?*
Well—er—I—really have no excuse.

21.29 Dashes are desirable for setting off a complicated non-restrictive expression (such as an appositive)—especially if it contains commas within itself (10.8 and 10.12) or if it is a noun clause (12.4).

21.30 Dashes may be used for setting off emphatic parenthetical material, especially clauses that are structurally independent:

My cousin—you met him last summer—wants to take us to the baseball game next Saturday.

21.31 A dash is employed before a word or expression summing up a preceding series:

Health, a good name, sincere friends, a devoted family—these are worth more than riches.

21.32 A comma or a period is dropped if it would come at the point where a dash is used; but a question mark or an exclamation point, if required by the sense, is added to the dash:

My cousin—you met him last summer, didn't you?—wants to take us to the baseball game next Saturday.

A period after *summer* in the illustrative sentence to rule 21.30 would be incorrect.

21.33 The dash should be used sparingly. If employed too frequently, it gives the effect of disconnectedness and superficiality.

H. PARENTHESES AND BRACKETS

21.34 Parentheses are used to enclose explanatory or supplementary material, such as a date, a word, a phrase, or a clause having only an indirect connection with the sentence proper:

William Jennings Bryan (1860-1925) was the dominant figure in the Democratic Party from 1896 to 1912.

William Cullen Bryant (who lived to be eighty-three years of age) wrote his best poem ("Thanatopsis") at seventeen.

Sometimes the choice between dashes (see 21.30 above) and parentheses depends upon the rhetorical effect desired. Parentheses tend to make the parenthetical matter less conspicuous, less emphatic, and somewhat more formal than do dashes. For a list of parenthetical elements for which commas are ordinarily used, see 21.19 above.

21.35 A period ending a passage enclosed in parentheses is

dropped; other end punctuation belonging to the parenthetical passage (question mark or exclamation point) is placed *inside* the parenthesis. A mark belonging to the main portion of the sentence (period, semicolon, colon, or comma) is set *outside* the parenthesis (that is, after the closing mark of parenthesis):

Though the game was not an example of good baseball (there were too many errors), it was thrilling to watch. [The period after *errors* is omitted; the comma before *it* does not belong to the parenthetical passage.]

After Barton had raced sixty yards (or was it sixty-five yards?) for a touch-down, the ball was called back because of a penalty. [The question mark after *sixty-five yards* belongs to the parenthetical passage.]

- 21.36 A whole sentence or even a longer passage may be enclosed in parentheses without being attached to another sentence. In such a case a period (if the sentence is declarative or imperative) is retained, being placed before the closing mark of parenthesis. For an example, see the parenthetical sentence under rule 21.17 above.

- 21.37 If a precaution against error is desirable, a confirmatory figure or symbol is placed in parentheses immediately after a numeral or sum expressed in words:

Kindly send us seventy-five (75) copies of Hanford's *A Milton Handbook*. According to our books, you owe us twenty-six dollars and eighty cents (\$26.80).

- 21.38 Numerals or letters used for numbering points or items in a series are enclosed in parentheses:

I shall present my discussion in three divisions: (1) the need of a new gymnasium, (2) the size and type of building desirable, and (3) the plan of financing its construction.

- 21.39 A word or passage to be canceled should not be enclosed in parentheses, but should be crossed out with a straight line:

Wrong: He (said that he would not) refused to go.

Right: He ~~said that he would not~~ refused to go.

- 21.40 Explanatory material inserted by one person in a quotation from another person is enclosed in brackets, as in the first occurrence of brackets in the following:

F. C. Snell says, "The object the King [Alfred] had in view was to provide an education in the history of past ages, through an orthodox medium, for the noble youth of his nation" (*Age of Alfred* [London, 1912], p. 181).

- 21.41 Some writers and publishers use brackets for a parenthesis within a parenthesis. For an example, see the second occurrence of brackets in the passage illustrating the preceding rule.

I. QUOTATION MARKS

- 21.42 A direct quotation is enclosed in quotation marks:

He said, "You are welcome."

He asked, "When did you arrive?"

The common practice is to use double quotation marks for a quotation not within another quotation, but some writers and publishers substitute single marks:

He said, 'You are welcome.'

- 21.43 An indirect quotation is not enclosed in quotation marks:

Wrong: He said that "I was welcome."

Right: He said that I was welcome.

One or more words of actual quotation, however, may be incorporated into the regular sentence structure of an indirect quotation:

He said that he was "sick and tired of this monkeying."

- 21.44 If a quotation consists of more than one paragraph, quotation marks are placed at the beginning of each paragraph and at the end of only the last.

- 21.45 If a quotation is divided into two parts by an expression like *he said*, extra quotation marks are placed before and after the expression of saying:

Wrong: "No, replied his father, I am not willing to pay this bill."

Right: "No," replied his father, "I am not willing to pay this bill."

- 21.46 In the dialogue of a narrative, each speech is enclosed in quotation marks; and each speech (with its narrative material), even if very short, is paragraphed:

Yeobright looked upon the ground. "Then you have not seen Christian or any of the Egdon folks?" he said.

"No. I have only just returned after a long stay away. I called here the day before I left."

"And you have heard nothing?"

"Nothing."

"My mother is—dead."

"Dead!" said Venn mechanically. [From Hardy's *The Return of the Native*.]

- 21.47 Punctuation marks other than the comma and the period are placed within the quotation marks if they apply to the quotation, but outside if they belong to the whole sentence:

He asked, "Is this your hat?"
Did he say, "This is my hat" ?

A comma or a period is usually placed inside the closing quotation marks even if logically it would be on the outside:

"This is my hat," he said.
He said, "This is my hat."

- 21.48 A comma or a period is dropped if it would come at the point where a question mark or an exclamation point is used in connection with quotation marks:

Wrong: "Is this your hat?," he asked.
Right: "Is this your hat?" he asked.

- Quoted titles should be enclosed in quotation marks or italicized.
- 21.49 Quotation marks are preferable for magazine articles, essays, chapters of a book, stories, short poems, short musical compositions, and the like: Leacock's "Oxford as I See It," Irving's "Rip Van Winkle," Poe's "The Raven." For classes of titles and names that are preferably italicized, see rules 22.21 and 22.24. A title standing at the head of a composition should not be enclosed in quotation marks or italicized unless it is itself a quotation.

- 21.50 A word may be enclosed in quotation marks if it is used in a special technical sense which the writer feels would not be readily recognized by his readers:

A common method of punishing students was "rustication," or suspension.

- 21.51 Quotation marks should not be employed without good reason. Their use as an apology for slang or nicknames, though occasionally justifiable, should not be overdone. A real slang word can usually be replaced by a standard expression; and words like *humbug*, *brat*, and *hoax* are not slang. Some nicknames have practically become real names and hence do not need any apology (right: Bill, Teddy Roosevelt). Proper nouns used as common nouns do not require quotation marks (right: He is a Babbitt). To call attention to one's irony or other humor by quotation marks is usually not in good taste:

Objectionable: I thank you for your "courteous" treatment.

Better: I thank you for your courteous treatment.

- 21.52 A quotation within a quotation is enclosed in single quotation marks, and one of the third rank again in double marks:

The instructor then stated, "To appreciate fully the music and ravishing beauty of 'The Chinese Nightingale,' one must have heard Vachel Lindsay himself read the poem."

If single marks are used for the main quotation, double marks are proper for the inner quotation:

He said, "The Chinese Nightingale" is my favorite among the poems of Lindsay."

CHAPTER 22

MECHANICS

A. CAPITALS

- 22.1 The first word of a sentence or of a direct quotation is capitalized.

He replied, "The terms are not acceptable."

In a quotation divided into two parts by an expression like *he said*, the first word of the second part is not capitalized unless it is the beginning of a new sentence or requires a capital for some other reason:

"This man," the lawyer continued, "is a menace to society."

"This man is a menace to society," continued the lawyer. "He should be placed where he can do no further harm."

An indirect quotation or quoted words that are inserted into the regular structure of a clause should not be capitalized:

He replied that the terms were not acceptable.

He declared that the accusation was "false and malicious."

- 22.2 The first word of each line of poetry begins with a capital:

What's in a name? That which we call a rose
By any other word would smell as sweet.

—*Romeo and Juliet*, II, ii, 43-44.

22.3 Proper nouns and, in general, adjectives derived from them should be capitalized (except that prepositions, conjunctions, and articles used in names consisting of several words are written with small letters).

- a) Names, nicknames, and epithets of individuals: Thomas Jefferson, Jeffersonian, George V, Stonewall Jackson, William the Silent.
- b) Geographical names, streets, buildings, organizations, institutions, and the like: Europe, European, the United States, Connecticut, Los Angeles, Pacific Ocean, Washington Avenue, Steger Building, American Legion, Peerless Manufacturing Company, University of Oklahoma, North Central High School [but: a high school], the Junior Class [but: a junior], the Department of Chemistry. [Except in newspapers, generic words like *ocean* and *high school* are usually capitalized when forming component parts of proper nouns.]
- c) Special names for specific regions or localities, but not directions: the Orient, the Near East, the South, the Middle West, the Lone Star State, the North Side, turning to the east, going south.
- d) Religious sects or denominations, orders, political parties, schools of philosophy or of an art, and their adherents or members: Roman Catholic Church, Republican Party [or: party], Stoicism, Catholic, a Mason, a Republican, a Stoic.
- e) Heavenly bodies and constellations except the sun, the moon, and the earth: Mars, the Dipper, the Milky Way.
- f) Civic holidays, special religious days, months, days of the week, but not seasons or centuries. New Year's Day, Fourth of July, Easter, January, Monday, spring, summer, autumn, winter, nineteenth century.
- g) Historical epochs, linguistic or literary periods, important events, important documents, and the like: Middle Ages, Old English, Renaissance, World War, Declaration of Independence.
- h) Titles preceding names of persons, degrees or expressions like *Jr.*, following names of persons, and sometimes titles standing alone in place of personal names (that is, designating specific persons): Colonel Lindbergh; Professor Homer Dana; C. C. Todd, Ph. D.; John D. Rockefeller, Jr.; the Senator; Mr. Chairman. [Exception: ex-President.] The capitalization of titles standing alone is recommended only for those referring to persons of high rank or used in direct address.
- i) Words referring to the Deity: the Creator, Father, Redeemer, the Holy Ghost, He.
- j) Designations of the Bible, versions of the Bible, parts of the Bible, and other sacred writings: Bible, Holy Scriptures, Authorized Version, New Testament, Psalms, the Koran.
- k) Personifications of abstractions:
Hence, loathèd Melancholy.—Milton's "L'Allegro."
- l) Words of family relationship if used with personal names or instead of them (but not with possessives):
Right: I went fishing with Father and Uncle George.
Right: I went fishing with my father and my uncle.

- m) The first word and all important words of English literary titles (articles, prepositions, and conjunctions being usually excepted unless standing first): *The Mill on the Floss*, "Ethics and Etiquette in Prison," "To a Mouse," the *Literary Digest*, the *Washington Post*. [An initial article should be treated as a part of the title except in the name of a magazine or a newspaper.]

In cases not covered by the foregoing table, consult the dictionary.

- 22.4 If a word derived from a proper name has lost its association with the original, it is not capitalized: italics, chinaware, ohm, boycott.
- 22.5 The names of languages (because of being proper adjectives) are capitalized, but other subjects of study are ordinarily begun with small letters: English, French, history, physics, mathematics, music. (In the sense of a subject of study, *Education* is commonly capitalized to distinguish it from the general meaning of the word.) Specific courses are capitalized: History 2.
- 22.6 The following are capitalized: the personal pronoun *I*, the particle *O* (but not *oh* except when beginning a sentence), the salutatory phrase of a letter or an address (but not the word *dear* except when initial), the first words after *Whereas* and *Resolved* in resolutions:

Dear Friends [but: My dear Mr. Brown]:
Resolved, That . . .

B. ABBREVIATIONS

- 22.7 In general writing, abbreviations except the following should be avoided:

Before personal names—*Mr.*, *Messrs.*, *Mrs.*, *Dr.*, *St.* (Saint), *Rev.*, *Hon.*

After personal names—*Sr.*, *Jr.*, *Esq.*, and degrees.

After time of day—*A.M.*, *P.M.* (or *a.m.*, *p.m.*).

Before dates—*A.D.*; after dates—*B.C.*

With numerals—*No.*

Names of a few organizations for which the abbreviated forms are commonly used in pronunciation, such as *W.C.T.U.*

The following Latin abbreviations, though permissible, should preferably be written out in their English equivalents: *i.e.* as *that is*, *viz.* as *namely*, *e.g.* as *for example*, *cf.* as *compare*, and *etc.* as *and so forth*. If *etc.* is employed, it should be preceded by a comma, but not by *and*; *et* itself means *and*. The ampersand (&) should not be used for *and* except in firm names in which it appears officially. *Doctor*, *Reverend*, and *Honorable* should preferably not be abbreviated unless the first name or initials are given; the last

two, if used with only the surname, should be followed by *Mr.:*
the Reverend Mr. Graves.

- 22.8 In business letters (especially in addresses and for names of months) abbreviations may be used somewhat more freely than in general writing. Words of five or fewer letters, however, should ordinarily be written out in full; and shortenings that are easily confused, such as *Cal.* and *Col.* for *California* and *Colorado*, respectively, should be avoided. In fact, the preferred practice at the present time is to abbreviate sparingly even in business correspondence.
- 22.9 In material where great brevity is essential—such as technical writing, footnotes, bibliography, and tables—the use of abbreviations is desirable. For a list of abbreviations, see the dictionary.
- 22.10 Abbreviations are ordinarily not capitalized unless the full forms would require capitals. Exceptions are *A.D.* (for *anno Domini*), *B.C.* (for *before Christ*), *A.M.* (for *ante meridiem*), and *P.M.* (for *post meridiem*); but the last two abbreviations are sometimes written with small letters.
- 22.11 Most abbreviations are followed by periods (see rule 21.2).

C. NUMBERS

- 22.12 Numbers that would require more than two words are normally expressed in figures: 163 members; 4,336 feet high. In numbers of more than three digits (except in dates, addresses, and telephone numbers), the digits are divided into groups of three by commas: 3,026,789 square miles.
- 22.13 Except in the situations covered by rules 22.14, 22.15, and 22.16, numbers that can be expressed in one or two words should be spelled out: fourteen tons of coal, three hundred sheep, a million voters, sixteen hundred [rather than “a thousand six hundred”] inhabitants. Compound numbers below a hundred are hyphenated: twenty-five gallons.
- 22.14 Figures should ordinarily be used for dates, the time of day (if *A.M.* or *P.M.* is employed), street numbers, references (such as page or section numbers), or tables: 21 B.C.; November 17, 1900; 8:15 P.M.; 6030 Kimbark Avenue; page 24. The day of the month should not be followed by *st*, *d* (*nd*), or *th* if the year is given: February 22, 1732 [rather than “February 22d, 1732”]. Even if the year is omitted, *st*, *d*, or *th* is unnecessary, provided that the day follows the month: Your letter of March 21 (but:

the twenty-first of March, or, the 21st of March). In a formal note of invitation, acceptance, or regret, the date is spelled out: May the seventeenth.

- 22.15** Because of being incapable of capitalization, a figure should ordinarily be avoided at the beginning of a sentence. Either the construction should be changed or the number should be spelled out:

Objectionable: \$6,581.75 was raised.

Better: The sum of \$6,581.75 was raised.

Objectionable: 1776 was a memorable year.

Better: The year 1776 was memorable.

Objectionable: 789 men were reported missing in action.

Better: Seven hundred and eighty-nine men were reported missing in action.

- 22.16** If some numbers of a connected group would normally be expressed in figures and some in words, they should be made uniform—ordinarily by being written as figures:

Objectionable: Williams received 189 votes, Smith 127, and Hunter fifty.

Uniform: Williams received 189 votes, Smith 127, and Hunter 50.

- 22.17** A complicated sum of money—one consisting of both dollars and cents or of dollars alone with a numeral that can not be stated in one or two words—is written with the dollar sign and figures: \$7.21; \$368; \$76,837,991.57. If there are no cents, the use of .00 is unnecessary: \$4,296 [not “\$4,296.00”]. A sum of money under a dollar or one consisting of dollars alone with a numeral that can be expressed in one or two words is ordinarily written out: eighty-six cents; thirty-four dollars. If some members of a connected group would normally be expressed in figures and some in words, they should be made uniform:

The suit cost \$42.75, the hat \$5.25, and the shoes \$9.00 [rather than “nine dollars”].

In the last example, .00 is added to the third sum for the sake of uniformity with the two amounts that have figures for cents.

- 22.18** Numbers expressed in words should not be confirmed by figures in parentheses unless a special precaution against error is really essential, such as in business letters or in legal documents:

Objectionable: I saw thirty-eight (38) bears in Yellowstone Park last summer.

Better: I saw thirty-eight bears in Yellowstone Park last summer.

D. ITALICS

- 22.19 In script and typewritten material, italics are indicated by underscoring.
- 22.20 Italics are employed for a word, letter, or symbol used merely as such instead of as an idea:

Separate is misspelled, and the *o*'s look like *o*'s.

Italics or quotation marks are used for quoted titles and the like.

- 22.21 Italics are preferable for books, material frequently published as complete books (such as plays and long poems), magazines, newspapers, and long musical compositions: Hawthorne's *The Scarlet Letter*, Shakespeare's *Macbeth*, Milton's *Paradise Lost*, the *Atlantic Monthly*, the *Chicago Tribune*, Gounod's *Faust*. Observe that neither an article used before the title of a magazine nor the name of a city preceding the title of a newspaper is italicized, but that in other titles an initial article is regarded as a part of the name. For classes of titles for which quotation marks are preferable, see rule 21.49.
- 22.22 Italics are used for unnaturalized foreign words, phrases, and abbreviations: *bête noire* ("black beast, a bug bear"), *idem*, *ibid.*, *op. cit.*, *q.v.* Italics are not required for naturalized foreign expressions, such as *a priori*, *née*, *per capita*, *versus*, *via*, *vice versa*, nor for the following common abbreviations: *cf.*, *e.g.*, *etc.*, *viz.* Foreign expressions marked with two preceding vertical lines in the Webster dictionaries (main vocabulary), as well as those not given in the standard English dictionaries, should normally be italicized.
- 22.23 Italics may occasionally be used for emphasis:

A participle *modifies* a substantive, whereas a gerund *is* a substantive.

This method of emphasis should be employed very sparingly.

- 22.24 Miscellaneous uses of italics are for names of ships (the *Maine*), for *Resolved* in resolutions, and for law cases (*Hunt vs. Parry*).

E. COMPOUNDS

- 22.25 Hyphenate compound numbers between twenty and a hundred: *thirty-one*, *thirty-first*.
- 22.26 Place a hyphen between the numerator and the denominator of a fraction unless either part already contains a hyphen:

two-thirds, fifteen-sixteenths; but twenty-three thirtieths. In an expression like *one half of* and in a fraction intended merely as roughly approximate, the hyphen is generally omitted:

About three fourths of the students attended the game.

- 22.27 **Hyphenate a combination of two or more words used as a single adjective modifier immediately before a noun: *a well-known principle, an up-to-date dictionary, a devil-may-care attitude.*** If the combination does not stand immediately before a noun, it is not hyphenated unless it is a permanent compound:

Right: He is well known in Europe.

Right: This bibliography should be brought up to date.

Right (permanent compound): He is old-fashioned.

In a compound adjective standing immediately before a noun, the hyphen is omitted if the first word is an adverb ending in *-ly* or if the combination is a proper noun with a fixed meaning: *a generally accepted rule, New England schools.*

- 22.28 **Hyphenate a compound noun in which the second element is a preposition or adverb: *kick-off, take-off, runner-up, hanger-on.***

- 22.29 **In compounds not covered by the above rules, a person must depend chiefly upon memory of the individual words and upon the aid of a reliable, up-to-date dictionary.** As with spelling in general, the use of the hyphen can not be reduced to a logical system. Many compounds are first treated as two words, later hyphenated, and finally written solid (that is, written as one word without hyphen). Moreover, some words are hyphenated by some prominent authorities but not by others. The general tendency is to use the hyphen only if the elements are not felt as thoroughly fused or if the omission of the mark might result in misreading.

a) Among the compounds ordinarily hyphenated are the following: titles with *vice-* and *ex-* (*vice-president, ex-Governor Joyce*; but *viceroys, viceroy*); family relationships with *great* (*great-grandfather*); proper nouns or adjectives preceded by prefixes (*Pan-American*); words beginning with *self-* (*self-control*; but *selfish, selfsame*); many compounds consisting of an agent or a gerund preceded by a thing acted upon (*story-writer, clay-modeling*; but *dressmaker, shopkeeper*, and many other common exceptions); new formations in *re-* if they duplicate the spelling of older words

(*re-creation*, meaning "the act of creating again"); *brother-in-law*, *editor-in-chief*, *man-of-war*, and the like.

b) Compounds ending in *-book*, *-room*, *-house*, *-yard*, and the like tend to be written solid if the first part contains only one syllable: *textbook*, *classroom*, *schoolhouse*, *shipyard*, *workshop*. They are usually treated as two words (sometimes hyphenated) if the first part consists of more than one syllable: *reference book*, *dining room*, *business house*.

c) The following common words are written solid: *altogether* (but *all right*), *anybody*, *baseball*, *basketball*, *bookstore*, *football*, *footnote*, *fourfold*, *goodby*, *inasmuch*, *moreover*, *nevertheless*, *notwithstanding*, *nowadays*, *typewrite*. *Today*, *tomorrow*, and *tonight* may be written solid or may be hyphenated (*to-day*).

d) *Any one*, *every one*, and *some one* should be treated as two words when denoting things or when followed by *of*: *every one of us*. In the meanings of "anybody," "everybody," and "somebody," however, they are written solid by some authorities, and divided by others; for the sake of uniformity with the parallel words with *body*, the solid forms seem preferable: *Someone is knocking*.

F. SYLLABICATION

The following rules cover most problems of syllabication. If in doubt about a particular case, the student should consult the dictionary.

- 22.30 Words should be divided sparingly. One should never set off a syllable of only one or two letters, and in typing or script one should ordinarily carry over a whole word to the new line rather than separate an element of even three or four letters at the beginning:

Objectionable: *e-late*, *in-vert*, *hunt-ed*.
Better: *late*, *invert*, *hunted*.

- 22.31 Words of one syllable should never be divided, and other words should be divided only between syllables:

Wrong: *stre-ams*, *gleam-ed*, *frustr-ate*.
Right: *streams*, *gleamed*, *frustrate*.

- 22.32 If a word is compound or has a distinct prefix or suffix, the division is generally made between the component parts:

Objectionable: *postmas-ter*, *intra-mu-ral*, *gov-ern-ment*.

Better: *post-master*, *intra-mural*, *govern-ment*.

A suffix beginning with a vowel and added to a word ending in *l* and a silent *e* is an exception to this rule: *sprin-kl-ing* (from *sprinkle*). A consonant doubled because of the addition of *ing* or *ed* (but not an originally double consonant) is divided: *strum-m-ing* (from *strum*), *thrill-ing* (from *thrill*).

- 22.33 In cases not falling under the previous rule, a single consonant standing between two sounded vowels or diphthongs usually goes with the following vowel except when the preceding one is both short and accented:

With the following vowel: *mag'nī-tude* (not *mag'nīt-ude*), *maršū'-pial* (not *maršūp'-ial*).

With preceding vowel: *pestif'-erous* (not *pestīf'-ferous*).

- 22.34 In cases not falling under rule 22.32, two (or more) consonants standing between two sounded vowels or diphthongs are normally divided if the pronunciation permits: *impor-tant*, *arith-metic*. In some words, however, both (or all) of the consonants go with the following vowel (rarely with the preceding vowel): *inte-gral*. Rule 22.34 does not apply to single consonant sounds written with two letters; for instance, *th* is not divided.

- 22.35 If a word is divided between two lines, the hyphen should be placed at the end of the first line—never at the beginning of the second.

G. THE APOSTROPHE

- 22.36 The apostrophe indicates the omission of a letter or of letters in a contracted word. It should always be placed at the point where the letter or letters have dropped out:

Wrong: *are'nt*, *you're*, *hadent*.

Right: *aren't*, *you're*, *hadn't*.

- 22.37 The apostrophe is used for the possessive case of nouns and indefinite pronouns (9.2 to 9.10).

- 22.38 **The apostrophe is not employed for the possessive case of personal, relative, and interrogative pronouns (9.1).**
- 22.39 **If a letter, figure, symbol, or word is regarded merely as such and not as an idea, its plural is formed by the addition of 's (7.12).**

H. MANUSCRIPT

- 22.40 **Material.** Unless given other instructions as to paper, use sheets of standard size (about $8\frac{1}{2} \times 11$ inches). Ruled paper should have lines about three eighths of an inch apart; for typing, unruled paper should be used. Write on only one side of the sheet. Use black or blue-black ink, or a typewriter with a black ribbon.
- 22.41 **Margins and Spacing.** Do not crowd the writing. Leave ample margins at the top, at the bottom (on ruled paper the last line should be left blank), and on both sides (at least an inch of space should be blank at the left). In typewritten material, double-space the lines. Indent the first line of a paragraph about an inch. Except at the end of a paragraph, do not permit a part of a line to remain blank after the close of a sentence. Leave one space between words and two spaces between sentences (in addition to space occupied by punctuation).
- 22.42 **Legibility.** Make your writing legible and neat. Distinguish between *n* and *u*, *a* and *o*, *e* and *i*, *7* and *1*, and capitals and small letters. Dot *i*'s and *j*'s, and cross *l*'s. Avoid unessential flourishes, and do not run the loops of letters into material on adjacent lines. In script, make the dash about three times as long as the hyphen; in typing, form the dash by striking the hyphen key twice. Indicate deletion by drawing a straight line through the material to be removed—not by enclosing it in parentheses. After completing a paper, proofread it carefully for the correction of minor errors. If a manuscript is not free or practically free from alterations, make a clean copy.
- 22.43 **Titles.** Choose a brief, appropriate, and distinctive title. Though it should not be sensational or misleading, the title should attract the attention of the reader. Such generalizations as "My Autobiography" or "A Character Sketch" are not effective. A declarative sentence is ordinarily not desirable.
- 22.44 **Center the title, and capitalize the first word and all important words (prepositions, conjunctions, and articles are usually not important).** Do not employ quotation marks or italics for a title

standing at the head of a composition unless it happens to be a quotation; but in a typewritten paper the use of solid capitals for a title is permissible. Do not place any punctuation after the title except (if appropriate) a question mark or an exclamation point. After the title, leave a blank twice the regular space between lines. Do not refer to the title in the first sentence of the composition; for instance, in a paper on "My First Airplane Ride," prefer "My first experience in flying . . ." to "This experience . . ."

- 22.45 **Quotations.** A prose quotation of less than five lines or a verse quotation of only one line is indicated by quotation marks and written as part of the regular text; that is, no break in the line is made. (For the use of quotation marks, see rules 21.42 to 21.52.) A longer prose or a longer verse quotation is "blocked"; that is, the quotation itself begins on a new line. In a typed manuscript a blocked prose quotation is single-spaced, set in half as far as the indentation of a paragraph, and *not* placed in quotation marks; in script these three practices are not observed, but a line is left blank after the close of the quotation. A blocked verse quotation is treated similarly except for being centered. For the sake of uniformity, a short quotation used in connection with a blocked quotation is also blocked. An omission in a quotation is indicated by three dots—with the addition of a fourth if the omitted portion was followed by a period. Explanatory words inserted by the person doing the quoting are enclosed in brackets. An omission or an insertion must never change the meaning of a quotation. The following sample illustrates a blocked prose quotation in a typed manuscript (the text before and after to be double-spaced), an editorial insertion, and an omission:

Studies serve for delight, for ornament, and for ability. . . . Some [books] are to be read only in parts; others to be read, but not curiously [carefully], and some few to be read wholly, and with diligence and attention. . . . Histories make men wise; poets, witty; the mathematics, subtle; natural philosophy [science], deep; moral [ethics], grave; logic and rhetoric, able to contend.—Bacon, "On Studies."

A sentence belonging to the same paragraph as a preceding blocked quotation begins flush with the margin (like this sentence), but

in script the usual blank line between the quotation and the following text is allowed.

- 22.46 The source of a quotation should ordinarily be specified. This is usually done in the portion of the text introducing the quotation (for an example, see the words introducing the illustrative sentence under rule 5.3) or in a footnote (for the form of footnotes, see rules 22.59 to 22.63). Occasionally the citation is placed immediately after the quotation (as in the sample given a few lines above). If the passage is taken from a very short work, the author and the title are sufficient; otherwise, the page, the act and scene, or the line should be given.
- 22.47 **Acknowledgment of Indebtedness.** A borrowed idea, as well as an actual quotation, should be credited to the original author. Failure to do so is "plagiarism," or intellectual dishonesty. This statement does not apply to information that is common property, such as well-known dates and events (for instance, that Washington was born in 1732), but it includes special facts, conclusions, opinions, and phrasings. Usually, of course, the citation of authority also serves to increase the effectiveness of data. If in doubt about the need of a reference, one should give it. Acknowledgment of indebtedness in specific points should be made by means of footnotes. Liberal borrowing from one or two sources can be indicated by a single note under the endorsement or at the end of the paper: "Based on —————" or "Based chiefly on —————." Even indebtedness for a general suggestion should be acknowledged: "General idea suggested by —————."
- 22.48 **Paging.** Number the pages with Arabic numerals in the upper right-hand corner of each sheet except the first.
- 22.49 **Folding.** Unless your instructor gives you directions to the contrary, fold ordinary papers with a single crease lengthwise. Productions so long that they can not be folded conveniently in this manner should be left flat, and the sheets should be clipped together or put into folders.
- 22.50 **Endorsing.** Endorse student papers fully. Folded compositions should be endorsed near the top of the side that is uppermost when the crease is at the left (in other words, the side corresponding to the front of a book). Long unfolded papers should be endorsed on a special title page. The data usually essential are the student's name, the course and (if a sectioned course) the

section, the instructor's name, the date, and the designation of the assignment (by number or by some other means):

Homer Nevin
English 1, Section B8
Mr. Buchanan
March 8, 19—
Theme 9

If the English Department of your institution uses the number system of filing themes, write your file number in the upper right-hand corner above the endorsement.

J. THE INVESTIGATIVE PAPER

One frequently has occasion to supplement his own store of information by gathering additional material in the library. The systematic investigation and written presentation of such material requires the following:

I. Card bibliography.

II. Notes.

III. Outline of the composition.

IV. Text of the composition (with footnotes).

V. Bibliography (list of works actually consulted).

- 22.51 **Card Bibliography.** After your subject has been decided upon, begin to make a bibliography of works on the topic. As you find titles that seem to deal with your subject, write them on cards (3×5 inches). Use a separate card for each work, so that you can insert titles freely and classify the bibliography conveniently. Reserve the first line for the subtopic, for later you will probably wish to classify the list according to various phases of the subject. (You can write in the subtopic when you examine the work, provided that by that time you have a tentative plan of subdivision.) Put the author's name (last name first) on the second line; if the author is not indicated, *Anon.* ("anonymous") may be used, or the line may be left blank. Write the title of the work on the third line. For a book, specify the city and the year of publication on the fourth line (the publishing company may be added if desired). If the date of publication is not given on the title page, look at the copyright statement on the reverse side of the sheet; if no date is available, substitute the abbreviation *n.d.* For a magazine article, give as the fourth line the name of

the periodical, the volume number (with the year in parentheses), and the pages; if the magazine numbers its pages independently for each issue, include the date of the issue. If a book or a set has passed through two or more editions, indicate the number of the edition; if it consists of more than one volume, specify the number of volumes; and if it was edited by a person other than the original author, give the name of the editor. The lower part of the card can be used for brief remarks concerning the nature of the material or the availability of the work. If a line runs over, use hanging indentation.

For sample bibliography cards (reduced in size), see the accompanying figures. The upper card of Fig. 1 contains the data for a work having but one edition, no special editor, and only one volume. The lower card adds the edition number, the editor, and the number of the volumes for a work to which these three items apply (the publisher, though usually omitted, is here included).

<p>Joyce, Thomas A. <u>Mexican Archaeology</u>. London, 1914.</p> <hr/> <p>In the public library.</p>
<p>Schmidt, Erich. <u>Lessing</u>, 4th ed., ed. Franz Schultz. 2 vols. Berlin: Weidmann, 1923.</p> <hr/> <p>"Most complete biography" of Lessing (cf. <u>Ency. Brit.</u>). In German.</p>

FIG. 1. Bibliography cards for books.

The upper card of Fig. 2 is for a signed article in a magazine numbering the pages continuously throughout the volume, and the

lower one for an unsigned article in a periodical numberin. the pages independently for each issue.

McKerrow, R. B.
"The Capital Letters in Elizabethan
Handwriting."
Review of English Studies, III (1927),
28-36.

Anon.
"Why Greek Athletes Left No World
Records."
Literary Digest, LXXXVIII (1926),
Feb. 27, pp. 67-68.

Summary of an article by Carl Shoup
in New York World.

FIG. 2. Bibliography cards for magazine articles.

In the finding of material, two guides are particularly important: the card catalog and the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*.

- 22.52 The card catalog is a list of the books (sometimes also of the magazines) possessed by the library. Ordinarily there are three cards for each book: one alphabetized according to the author's name, one according to the title, and one according to the subject. If the investigator knows the author's name, the author card is usually the quickest means of finding the book (or of ascertaining that the library does not have it). If he knows the title but not the author, he should look for the title. (A title card is filed alphabetically according to the first word of the title exclusive of the articles *a*, *an*, and *the*.) If he knows neither the author's name nor the title, he should refer to the subject. Sometimes one must try several words. For instance, if there is no entry under "Living Conditions," the desired material may be listed under "Housing." So far as possible, card catalogs have cross references. Thus a

card headed "Houses" may direct one's attention to "Architecture, Domestic." Because a person usually has little knowledge of specific works and authors when he approaches a new field, the subject cards are particularly useful at the beginning of an investigation.

- 22.53 The *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* (issued since 1900) is a cumulative index of the material to be found in about 125 of the more important general magazines. Temporary numbers are published each month, these being assembled every few months into larger temporary issues; and finally a permanent volume covering several years is printed. Articles are listed under both author and subject. For magazine material before 1900, a similar guide is Poole's *Index to Periodical Literature* (1802-1906). Many of the more specialized magazines have been indexed since 1907 in the *International Index to Periodicals* (called *Readers' Guide Supplement* from 1907 to 1919). For newspaper stories one should consult the *New York Times Index* (begun in 1913) or the *London Times Index*.
- 22.54 Frequently the standard encyclopedias are a good starting point. For instance, the *Britannica* (14th ed., 1929), besides giving a brief treatment of a great multitude of topics, has selected bibliographies at the end of many of the articles. If one finds such a bibliography on his subject, he should make a card for each of the titles and then consult the catalogs of the libraries to which he has access—to ascertain which books are obtainable and, if possible, to increase the list. Moreover, many books have bibliographies on their own subjects (in the back or after each chapter); and footnotes often refer to works containing significant material. Accordingly, as one examines the books and articles on his list, he should have a supply of cards to take down additional titles.
- 22.55 The numerous bibliographies in special fields differ greatly in the degree of restriction. For example, in the English language and literature, the bibliographies in *The Cambridge History of English Literature* (14 vols., New York and Cambridge, 1907-17) cover the whole range, whereas Manly and Rickert's *Contemporary British Literature* (rev. ed., New York, 1928) is limited to a short period, and D. H. Stevens' *Reference Guide to Milton from 1800 to the Present Day* (Chicago, 1930) to a single writer.
-

In using any bibliography that has not recently been brought up to date, the student should bear in mind that important works on his subject may have appeared since the publication of the bibliography.¹

- 22.56 **Notes.** As one reads a work, he should take notes on the material that he is likely to use. Unless he does this systematically and carefully, he will soon become bewildered if the subject matter is at all complicated. The notes should be written on cards or sheets of paper about $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$ inches. Only one point should be put on each card or sheet, so that the material can later be easily classified. Notes may be quotations, paraphrases, summaries, records of isolated facts, or one's own comments. Obviously, it is very important that one be able to recognize at a glance whether a note is a quotation, a paraphrase, or an original comment. Accordingly, a passage intended as a quotation should be copied accurately (even to the minutest mark of punctuation) and enclosed in quotation marks; if one finds an obvious error of fact or form in the document, he can protect himself against suspicion of inaccuracy by placing the word *sic* (meaning "thus") in brackets after it. A paraphrase should be stated in one's own words and not placed in quotation marks. A comment of one's own should be clearly labeled as such by means of an expression like *original comment* or of a symbol, such as brackets:

[This statement seems overdrawn]

- 22.57 The exact reference should be written at the end of each note. Though this need not be so full as a footnote, it should be sufficient to enable the writer himself to locate the reference immediately or, with the aid of the corresponding bibliography card, to make the footnote.

One should make as many note cards or sheets on a work as there are points that he wishes to record. After notes on the various works of the card bibliography have been taken, they should be assembled and sorted according to the divisions and subdivisions of one's subject. When the paper is completed, all the quotations and references (if possible) should be verified with the original sources as a special precaution against error.

¹ The student is urged to read a brief work explaining the use of the library. Rowse and Rowse's *How to Use the Library* (Stockton, Calif.: Gaylord Bros. Inc., 1928) is recommended as a good pamphlet costing only a few cents.

The following are sample note cards:

Jefferson's Attitude toward the Indians

From letter to John Page, Aug. 5, 1776—

"I am sorry to hear that the Indians have commenced war, but greatly pleased you have been so decisive on that head. Nothing will reduce those wretches so soon as pushing the war into the heart of their country. But I would not stop there. I would never cease pursuing them while one of them remained on this side the Mississippi. So unprovoked an attack & so treacherous a one should never be forgiven while one of them remains near enough to do us injury."

Jefferson, Writings, ed. Ford, II, 73-74.

Worship of "Form" by Greek Athlete

The ancient Greek athlete was so much bound by rules of what we now call "form" and "style" that he had to sacrifice speed and distance. A broad-jump was not even measured if he did not land with his feet neatly paired together. The discus-thrower was not permitted to swing around. In a bronze statuette of a sprinter waiting for the starting signal, the feet are so close together that the runner must have been handicapped in getting a quick start.

Lit. Dig., LXXXVIII, F. 27, pp. 67-68.

- 22.58 **Outline.** In order to secure a logical organization, make a careful outline before beginning to write. Use Roman numerals for the main divisions of the body, capital letters for the points of the second rank, Arabic numerals for the points of the third rank, and small letters for the points of the fourth rank. Numbers are not necessary before *Introduction* and *Conclusion*.

Text of the Composition. For general specifications as to manuscript, see § H above. For the use and form of footnotes, see immediately below.

- 22.59 **Footnotes.** Each quotation (see rule 22.45-46) or borrowed idea (see rule 22.47) should be followed by a superior Arabic numeral (that is, a numeral raised about half a space) referring to a footnote where the source is stated; and the footnote should be preceded by the same number—also in superior position. The foot-

notes belonging to each page are placed at the bottom of the sheet, and are separated from the regular text by a solid line across the page. Some writers and publishers number the footnotes continuously throughout a paper or article, whereas others begin anew with "1" on each page. Footnotes are single-spaced; and each is paragraphed, even if it consists of only one line.

- 22.60 On referring to a book of one volume for the first time, give the author's name (first name or initials first), the title of the book, the city and year of publication (preferably in parentheses), and the page or pages (preceded by *p.* or *pp.*, respectively); use Arabic numerals for page numbers unless they are actually in Roman in the document cited (as in a preface).¹ For a work of more than one volume, add the volume number in a Roman numeral (preferably omitting the words or abbreviations for *volume* and *page*).² If a book or a set has passed through two or more editions, indicate the number of the edition ³; and if it was edited by a person other than the original author, give the name of the editor.⁴ For an article in a reference work in which the individual author is subordinated, such as a standard encyclopedia or the *Dictionary of National Biography*, his name is usually omitted (even if available).⁵
- 22.61 On citing a magazine article for the first time, specify the name of the author, the title of the article, the name of the magazine, the volume number in Roman (preferably followed by the year in parentheses), and the page or pages in Arabic.⁶ For a magazine in which each issue has its pages numbered independently, give the date of the issue ⁷; for a newspaper story, follow the same

¹Thomas A. Joyce, Mexican Archaeology (London, 1914), pp. 109-20. [Some writers use only commas before and after the place and the date of publication.]

²William E. H. Lecky, Democracy and Liberty (New York, 1896), II, 242.

³Edwin R. A. Seligman, The Income Tax, 2d ed. (New York, 1914), p. 276.

⁴Thomas Jefferson, Writings, ed. Paul Leicester Ford (New York and London, 1892-99), IX, 50-51.

⁵"Forests and Forestry," The Encyclopaedia Britannica, 14th ed. (London and New York, 1929), IX, 503-04.

⁶R. B. McKerrow, "The Capital Letters in Elizabethan Handwriting," Review of English Studies, III (1927), 31.

⁷Burdette G. Lewis, "How Racketeering Began," Review of Reviews, LXXXVI (1932), July, pp. 40-41.

procedure, but preferably add the number of the column.¹ In references to unsigned magazine articles and to most newspaper stories, of course, the authors' names must be omitted.²

- 22.62 If two successive footnotes are exactly the same, use *ibid.* (meaning "the same") for the second³; if they differ only in the page (or the volume and the page) numbers, in the second substitute *ibid.* for the data that are the same.⁴ If you refer to a work cited in a previous footnote not immediately preceding, give the author's last name with *op. cit.* (signifying "the work by this author previously referred to") and the new page (or volume and page) number⁵; but *op. cit.* is not correct if more than one of the author's works have been previously cited. If a reference is exactly the same as one in a previous footnote not immediately preceding, *loc. cit.* (meaning "the place cited") and only the last name of the author are sufficient, provided that no other work by the same writer has been referred to.⁶ Other abbreviations that appear frequently in footnotes are the following: *cf.* ("refer to"), *cp.* ("compare"), *q.v.* ("which see"), *l.* ("line"), *ll.* ("lines"), *f.* ("and the following [page or line]"), *ff.* ("and the following [pages or lines]").

Remember that *ibid.*, *op. cit.*, *loc. cit.*, and *q.v.* (but not the other abbreviations discussed in the preceding paragraph) should be italicized—that is, underscored in script or typing (see rule 22.22). Certain titles should be italicized (22.21), and others enclosed in quotation marks (21.49).

- 22.63 If any portion of the bibliographical data is given in the regular text, it should not be repeated in the footnote.⁷

¹ "Bond Prices Soar in Heavy Trading," New York Times, August 12, 1932, p. 1, col. 6.

² "Why Greek Athletes Left No World Records," Literary Digest, LXXXVIII (1926), Feb. 27, p. 67.

³ *Ibid.* [Means that this reference is the same as that in footnote 2.]

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 68. [Means that this reference is the same as that in footnote 3 except for the page number.]

⁵ McKerrow, *op. cit.*, p. 34. [Means that this reference is the same as that in footnote 6 on page 143 except for the page number.]

⁶ Seligman, *loc. cit.* [Means that this reference is the same as that in footnote 3 on page 143.]

⁷ Democracy and Liberty (New York, 1914), II, 242. [This is the form for footnote 2 on page 143 if the author's name has already been given in the main text.]

22.64 Besides references to sources, footnotes contain matter that the writer considers closely related to the subject but beside the chief train of thought. For an example, see footnote 1 on this page.¹

22.65 **Bibliography (list of works consulted).** An investigative paper should be accompanied by a list of works the writer has consulted. Obviously, this should be compiled from the card bibliography; works that were not obtainable (if any) or that were found to have no bearing on the subject should be omitted, but those that deal with the subject should be included even if no material was actually taken from them. The bibliography should be arranged alphabetically according to the authors' last names, or if a division into several groups seems desirable, alphabetically within each group. Entries in the bibliography call for the same data as do footnotes except that for a book a page reference is usually unnecessary, that for a set the number of volumes replaces the volume number, and that for a magazine article the page reference of the whole paper is essential. For the titles given as examples under rules 22.60 (footnotes for books) and 22.61 (footnotes for magazine articles), the following forms are recommended:

Joyce, Thomas A. Mexican Archaeology. London, 1914.

Lecky, William E. H. Democracy and Liberty. 2 vols. New York, 1896.

Selignan, Edwin R. A. The Income Tax. 2d ed. New York, 1914.

Jefferson, Thomas. Writings. Ed. Paul Leicester Ford. 10 vols. New York and London, 1892-99.

Encyclopaedia Britannica. "Forests and Forestry." 14th ed. London and New York, 1929. IX, 497-507. [The volume and page reference might be omitted, inasmuch as the articles are arranged alphabetically.]

McKerrow, R. B. "The Capital Letters in Elizabethan Handwriting." Review of English Studies, III (1927), 28-36.

Lewis, Burdette G. "How Racketeering Began." Review of Reviews, LXXXVI (1932), July, pp. 40-41, 54.

New York Times. "Bond Prices Soar in Heavy Trading." August 12, 1932, p. 1, col. 6.

Literary Digest. "Why Greek Athletes Left No World Records." LXXXVIII (1926), Feb. 27, pp. 67-68.

¹ For supplementary comments on bibliography cards, footnotes, and entries in bibliographical lists, see Appendix III, page 229. For the system of Roman notation, refer to Appendix II, page 228.

Notice that, contrary to the practice in footnotes, the author's last name is given first, periods are used at certain points, and hanging indention is employed (that is, the first line of each item begins flush with the margin, and the subsequent line or lines, if any, are indented several spaces). If the above titles constituted a bibliography, they would be arranged alphabetically as follows: *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, Jefferson, Joyce, Lecky, Lewis, *Literary Digest*, McKerrow, New York Times, Seligman.

If only a small portion of a work pertains to the subject (for instance, one or two chapters in a book, or one volume in a set), the writer should specify the parts consulted, provided that he can do so briefly:

Joyce, Thomas A. Mexican Archaeology. London, 1914.
(Chap. VII).

EXERCISE

Below is given the material from the title pages of several books. Make for each work a bibliography card, a footnote, and an entry for a bibliography of works consulted. For the use of capitals, italics, and quotation marks in titles, see rules 22.3 (m), 22.21, and 21.49.

1. The Factors/ of/ Social Evolution/ by/ Theodore de Laguna/
Bryn Mawr College/ F. S. Crofts & Co./ New York — 1926.
[Treat *de* as part of the last name, capitalizing it when it stands first; in the footnote, refer to pp. 107-12.]
2. Primitive Culture/ . . ./ by Edward B. Tylor, D.C.L., LL.D.,
F.R.S./ Professor of Anthropology in the University of Oxford/
. . ./ in two volumes/ Vol. I/ London/ John Murray, Albermarle Street, W./ 1920. [The opposite page indicates that this is the sixth edition; in the footnote, refer to Vol. I, pp. 137 to 141.]
3. The Origin/ and Development/ of the/ Moral Ideas/ by/ Edward Westermarck, Ph.D./ Lecturer on Sociology at the University of Finland . . ./ in two volumes/ Vol. I/ London/ Macmillan and Co., Limited/ New York: The Macmillan Company/ 1906/ All rights reserved. [Vol. II is dated 1908; in the footnote, refer to Vol. I, p. 190.]
4. Milton's/ Complete/ Poems/ . . ./ Edited by/ Frank Allen Patterson/ Columbia University/ 1930/ New York: *Printed for F. S. Crofts & Co./ and are to be sold at 41 Union Square West.* [In the footnote, refer to p. 21.]

For each of the following magazine articles, make a bibliography card, a footnote, and an entry for a bibliography of works consulted. Observe that capitalization and either italicization or quotation marks are to be added, and that some numbers are to be changed to Roman numerals.

5. Article: The presidential election in the United States. Author: Albert Bushnell Hart. Magazine: The current history magazine. Volume: 21. Pages: 325-28. Date: November, 1924. [The pages are numbered continuously within the volume; in the footnote, refer to p. 327.]
6. Article: Have you an invention for sale? Author: Edward Thomas. Magazine: Popular science monthly. Volume: 121. Pages: 29-30 and 130. Date: August, 1932. [The pages are not numbered continuously within the volume; in the footnote, refer to p. 29.]
7. Article (unsigned editorial): The tax bill. Magazine: New republic. Volume: 71. Pages 166-168. Date: June 29, 1932. [The pages are numbered continuously within the volume; in the footnote, refer to pp. 166-168.]

CHAPTER 23

ECONOMY

A. WORDINESS

- 23.1 **Do not use superfluous words.** A piece of writing padded by unnecessary verbiage is weakened like milk diluted with water. For instance, do not employ an adjective clause if an adjective, an appositive, or a short phrase will express the same meaning:

Wordy: The horse that is dead was merely an old nag.

Concise: The dead horse was merely an old nag.

Wordy: Knute Rockne, who was America's most famous football coach, was killed in an airplane accident.

Concise: Knute Rockne, America's most famous football coach, was killed in an airplane accident.

Wordy: The bird that is sitting on the willow is a turtle dove.

Concise: The bird on the willow is a turtle dove.

Do not write two complete independent clauses if a simple sentence with a compound predicate is adequate:

Wordy: The World War began in 1914, and it ended in 1918.

Concise: The World War began in 1914 and ended in 1918.

Do not use the expletive *there* unnecessarily:

Wordy: There were about eight million men killed in the World War.

Concise: About eight million men were killed in the World War.

Do not duplicate synonyms without purpose or add other material that does not contribute to the expression of the thought.

The following paragraph (from a theme entitled "My Vocation") can be easily reduced to fewer than half the number of words:

Wordy

The vocation that I have chosen is what I consider one of the most important and necessary occupations there are in this world of yesterday, today, and tomorrow. It is one which is of vital importance to the social, industrial, political, educational, and religious worlds of today, and, in my opinion, it ranks second only to one, which is agriculture. The vocation which I have chosen is architectural engineering.

Concise

Architectural engineering, my future vocation, is a highly important occupation. It is a necessity in practically every activity—social, industrial, political, educational, religious—and, in my opinion, ranks second only to agriculture.

- 23.2 **A particularly objectionable form of wordiness is tautology,** the needless or useless repetition of the same idea in different words. In the following sentence, either *throughout* or *entire* should be omitted:

Tautological: I remained in Philadelphia throughout the entire winter.

After writing the first draft of your next theme, see whether any sentences or longer passages could be condensed to advantage. Do not use six to eight hundred words to express an idea that can be adequately treated in three to four hundred.

B. ELLIPTICAL CLAUSES

An adverbial clause lacking certain elements that can be readily supplied from the independent clause is **elliptical**. Except in comparisons, the elements usually omitted are the subject and either a part or the whole of the verb, the remnant frequently consisting of only the conjunction with a participle, a phrase, a noun, or an adjective.

- 23.3 **When an elliptical clause can be employed, it is useful for avoiding wordiness and unpleasant repetition:**

Wordy: While we were living in New York, we frequently attended the Cathedral of St. John the Divine.

Concise: While living in New York, we frequently attended the Cathedral of St. John the Divine.

Wordy: While I was in high school, I was troubled with headaches.

Concise: While in high school, I was troubled with headaches.

Wordy: Though the study of medicine is difficult, it is fascinating.

Concise: The study of medicine, though difficult, is fascinating.

- 23.4 **A dangling elliptical clause should be avoided.** The subject of a dependent clause must be expressed unless it is the same as that of the independent clause:

Dangling: When little children, our parents took us to see the Kaiser.

Improved: When little children, **we** were taken by our parents to see the Kaiser.

Improved: When **we** were little children, our parents took us to see the Kaiser.

CHAPTER 24

SUBORDINATION

A. EMPHASIS BY SUBORDINATION

A primary essential of good writing is emphasis. One should state his ideas in a forceful manner, inasmuch as the real test is, not how much thought is presented, but how much the reader absorbs and retains.

- 24.1 **One of the chief methods of securing emphasis is to put the main ideas into independent clauses and to assign the lesser ideas to subordinate sentence elements—dependent clauses, phrases, and words.** Just as an army becomes stronger and more formidable if the most capable men are made commanders over groups of privates and lower officers, so writing gains in vigor and impressiveness if the chief ideas are given prominence in the grammatical structure. Units of thought are frequently of unequal importance. In the following example, for instance, the result is of more significance than the cause:

The taxi failed to call for me; hence I missed my train.

Accordingly, the sentence becomes more emphatic as a whole if the first of the two independent clauses is changed into a modifier:

Because the taxi failed to call for me, I missed my train.

- 24.2 **The construction containing a result clause introduced by the transitional adverb so is particularly weak.** Such a sentence can usually be made much more effective by the subordination of the first clause and the elimination of the colorless word:

Weak: I had to look after my baggage; so I started to walk to the station.

Emphatic: Because I had to look after my baggage, I started to walk to the station.

Avoid the "so-habit."

B. CORRECTION OF THE COMMA SPLICE BY SUBORDINATION

- 24.3 **Frequently the most effective method of correcting a comma splice (see Chapter 5, § E) is to subordinate one of the independent clauses:**

Wrong: I attended high school for a year and a half, then my health failed.

Correct, but weak: I attended high school for a year and a half; then my health failed.

Correct, but weak: I attended high school for a year and a half, and then my health failed.

Emphatic: After I had attended high school for a year and a half, my health failed.

C. COMBINATION OF CHOPPY SENTENCES

- 24.4 **A passage consisting of two or more short simple sentences of unequal importance will become more emphatic if the lesser idea or ideas are subordinated:**

Weak and childish: I have lived a semester in a women's dormitory. During this time I have done my share of serving at the telephone desk. I feel qualified to give a little advice to newcomers on the handling of calls.

Emphatic: After a semester of life in a women's dormitory, during which I have done my share of serving at the telephone desk, I feel qualified to give a little advice to newcomers on the handling of calls.

D. THE STRINGY SENTENCE

- 24.5 **The most objectionable form in which the lack of subordination is to be found is the stringy sentence.** This gives the impression of a house to which addition after addition has been built without unified plan. **The lesser ideas should be subordinated to the main thought, and unessential words omitted. Fre-**

quently the material can be advantageously divided into shorter sentences. Needless to say, unrelated ideas belong in separate sentences.

Stringy: During the World War our aircraft production program was badly delayed, and a good many people think we did nothing in building airplanes, but the government reorganized the work and put capable production specialists in command and these men corrected the faults in the planes and increased production, and before the end of the war they were turning out planes faster than the government could supply pilots to man them.

Improved: During the World War our aircraft production program was so badly delayed that many people think we accomplished nothing in building airplanes. As a matter of fact, however, after the government reorganized the work and put capable production specialists in command, not only were the faults in the planes corrected, but production was increased. Before the end of the war, airplanes were being turned out faster than the government could supply pilots to man them.

24.6 Do not introduce two successive statements by *but* or two successive statements by *for*:

Crude: The opposite side of the stadium was a line of umbrellas and blankets, but I venture to say that the people there were just as wet and miserable as I was, but they probably didn't wish that they had stayed at home any more than I did.

Improved: Though the opposite side of the stadium was a line of umbrellas and blankets, I venture to say that the people there were as wet and miserable as I. Nevertheless, like me, they were probably far from wishing that they had stayed at home.

The reader expects a piece of writing to indicate clearly and immediately what is of primary importance and what is secondary. Accordingly, a person who persistently uses stringy or choppy sentences gives the impression of being unable to classify ideas—in other words, of being deficient in reasoning ability.

After writing your next theme, examine it to see whether you have given the main ideas sufficient prominence by subordinating the less important ones.

E. UPSIDE-DOWN SUBORDINATION

24.7 Do not put the main idea of a sentence into a phrase or a modifying clause:

Wrong: Roy was closing the store last night when he was held up by two well-dressed boys.

Better: As Roy was closing the store last night, he was held up by two well-dressed boys.

F. SUBORDINATION BY MEANS OF VERBALS

- 24.8 Participles and gerunds, not being so strong grammatically as finite verbs, can often be employed effectively for purposes of subordination. In the following example, the first verb is less important than the second, inasmuch as the arrival in Oakland is a mere step toward the goal, San Francisco:

Unemphatic: We arrived in Oakland and took a Western Pacific ferry to San Francisco.

Emphatic: Arriving in Oakland, we took a Western Pacific ferry to San Francisco.

- 24.9 Participles and gerunds are very useful for improving stringy sentences and for combining monotonous, choppy sentences:

Stringy: The sailors were tired and cold and so they huddled close to one another.

Improved: Being tired and cold, the sailors huddled close to one another.

Choppy: The carpenter drove in the last nail. He threw down his hammer and wiped his face.

Improved: The carpenter drove in the last nail and, throwing down the hammer, wiped his face.

Choppy: I worked two weeks for this firm. Then I was dismissed.

Improved: After working two weeks for this firm, I was dismissed.

Without overdoing, cultivate the practice of employing participles and gerunds whenever they will increase the effectiveness of your writing.

CHAPTER 25

VARIETY

A. VARIETY OF SENTENCE TYPES

"Variety is the spice of life." This principle is so well recognized that the saying has become a commonplace. No one likes to live on bread and water or to have only mush and milk for breakfast day in and day out. In composition, variety is as important as elsewhere. In spite of being grammatically correct, a piece of writing may still be flat and unattractive because of

a monotonous repetition of similar sentence structure or of the same words.

- 25.1 In general, English prose should contain a mixture of the three main sentence types: simple, compound, and complex. The complex sentence, to be sure, has the possibility for considerable variety within itself, inasmuch as the dependent clauses may be of three kinds (adjective, adverbial, and noun) and may stand in three positions (at the beginning, in the middle, and at the end). An extended succession of either simple or compound sentences, however, is highly disagreeable unless special effects are to be produced, such as rapid action in the case of the former, and contrast and balance in the case of the latter.

The following student theme has a pleasing mixture of sentence types (for convenience of citation, the sentences are here numbered):

Sailor Jack

(Original version)

1) As I remember seeing Jack last, he was sitting on the wharf with his feet hanging listlessly over the edge. 2) He was not the same hale sailor man that I had known years before. 3) Wracking pains of rheumatism had weakened and twisted him, until he appeared quite feeble. 4) With a far-away look toward the sea, he seemed to be ruminating over the distant past, and he smiled as if his thoughts were pleasant. 5) At the corners of his eyes was a set of very fine wrinkles, caused presumably by his gazing over the glinting water on sunny days. 6) In spite of his great age, his eyes were clear and bright, and a kindly twinkle in them made a person want to know the thoughts that formed in the massive head behind them. 7) His toil-scarred hands busily knotted a piece of string as if they desired to be occupied with the nets again—the nets that these hands had skillfully repaired in his years of service on the bank schooners. 8) Occasionally his firm chin seemed to hurl an impotent defiance at the ocean that he had mastered many, many times in raging storms.

Notice that of the eight sentences, one (No. 5) is simple, five (Nos. 1, 2, 3, 7, and 8) are complex, and two (Nos. 4 and 6) are compound-complex. Moreover, in the five plain complex sentences, some of the dependent clauses are adjectival, and some are adverbial.

On the other hand, the following version of the same theme (besides being weak because of insufficient subordination) is ex-

tremely monotonous in style. Of the twenty-two sentences, all are simple except No. 9, which is complex:

Sailor Jack

(Second version)

1) I clearly remember my last view of Jack. 2) He was sitting on the wharf. 3) His feet were hanging listlessly over the edge. 4) He had been known to me years before as a hale sailor man. 5) He had since become quite feeble. 6) He had been weakened and twisted by wracking pains of rheumatism. 7) He had a far-away look toward the sea. 8) He seemed to be ruminating over the distant past. 9) He smiled as if his thoughts were pleasant. 10) He had a set of very fine wrinkles at the corners of his eyes. 11) These had presumably been caused by his gazing over the glinting water on sunny days. 12) He was very old. 13) His eyes, however, were clear and bright. 14) A kindly twinkle in them made a person want to know his thoughts. 15) He had a massive head. 16) He had toil-scarred hands. 17) They busily knotted a piece of string. 18) They seemed to desire to be occupied with nets again. 19) He had skillfully repaired nets in his years of service on the bank schooners. 20) His chin was firm. 21) It occasionally seemed to hurl an impotent defiance at the ocean. 22) He had in his prime often mastered the ocean in raging storms.

Though normal adults would not use such an extremely monotonous and childish style as that of the second version, many people write with insufficient variety of sentence structure.

The third version, which consists chiefly of compound sentences, is also monotonous and awkward in style. Observe that seven sentences (Nos. 2, 3, 5, 6, 8, 9, and 10) are compound, one (No. 4) is compound-complex, and two (Nos. 1 and 7) are simple:

Sailor Jack

(Third version)

1) I clearly remember my last view of Jack. 2) He was sitting on the wharf with his feet hanging listlessly over the edge, and he had a far-away look toward the sea. 3) He had been known to me years before as a hale sailor man, but he had since become quite feeble, for he had been weakened and twisted by wracking pains of rheumatism. 4) He seemed to be ruminating over the distant past, and he smiled as if his thoughts were pleasant. 5) He had a set of very fine wrinkles at the corners of his eyes, and these had presumably been caused by his gazing over the glinting water on sunny days. 6) He was very old, but his eyes were clear and bright, and a kindly twinkle in them made a person want to know his thoughts. 7) He had a massive head. 8) He had toil-scarred hands, and they busily knotted a piece of string. 9) They seemed to desire to be occupied with nets again, for he had skillfully repaired nets in his years of service on the bank schooners.

10) His chin was firm, and it occasionally seemed to hurl an impotent defiance at the ocean, for in his prime he had often mastered the ocean in raging storms.

Sentence variety usually takes care of itself if the minor ideas are subordinated, but sometimes the writer must manipulate the structure to achieve the proper variation.

B. VARIETY OF SENTENCE BEGINNING

25.2 Although it is natural to begin sentences with the subject, nature can often be improved upon. **By occasionally placing something before the subject, an author will secure a pleasing variation.** The monotonous style of the second and the third versions of "Sailor Jack" is partly due to the fact that all the sentences have the subject first; moreover, in the second version thirteen of the twenty-two sentences begin with the word *he*. The first version, on the other hand, has adequate variety of sentence beginning. Three sentences (Nos. 2, 3, and 7) commence with the subject, three (Nos. 4, 5, and 6) have phrases in the initial position, one (No. 8) begins with an adverb, and one (No. 1) opens with an adverbial clause.

25.3 **In working for variety of sentence beginning, one should guard against using unnatural and strained word orders and against giving too much emphasis to the wrong elements.** The following sentences, for instance, could rarely be used in ordinary prose:

Swiftly, swiftly flew the ship.—Coleridge.

Great is Diana of the Ephesians.—*Acts* 19:34.

In your next theme, pay special attention to variety of sentence types and of sentence beginning.

C. VERBALS IN INITIAL POSITION

25.4 **Verbals are very useful for variety of sentence beginning, because they frequently precede the subject:**

Subject first: Mr. Baker recovered his composure and looked closely at the paper.

Participle first: Recovering his composure, Mr. Baker looked closely at the paper.

Gerund phrase first: On recovering his composure, Mr. Baker looked closely at the paper.

Infinitive first: To recover his composure, Mr. Harris walked to the window.

Notice the vigor and vividness produced by the participles in the following passage, in which Robert Louis Stevenson gives a reminiscence of the storms in a certain little fishing village:

But I recall with a more doubtful sentiment, *compounded* out of fear and exultation, the coil of equinoctial tempests; *trumpeting* squalls, *scouring* flaws of rain; the boats with their *reefed* lug-sails *scudding* for the harbour mouth, where danger lay, for it was hard to make when the wind had any east in it; the wives *clustered* with *blowing* shawls at the pierhead, where (if fate was against them) they might see boat and husband and sons—their whole wealth and their whole family—*engulfed* under their eyes; and (what I saw but once) a troop of neighbours *forcing* such an unfortunate homeward, and she *squalling* and *batling* in their midst, a figure scarcely human, a tragic Maenad.¹

Though verbals can rarely be used in such abundance as in this description, they are highly important for the average prose.

D. REPETITION OF WORDS AND SOUNDS

- 25.5 **The unnecessary and purposeless repetition of words should be avoided.** For instance, in the following passage the use of *car* twice and of *speed* three times is highly disagreeable:

This car has ample speed. The car is capable of attaining a speed of seventy-five miles an hour, and its stability at that speed is remarkable.

To avoid repeating, one can frequently employ a pronoun, a synonym, or some other equivalent expression. In the above passage, *the car* (at the beginning of the second sentence) can be replaced by *it*, *attaining a speed of* can be changed to *going*, and *speed* in the last clause can be altered to *rate*:

This car has ample speed. It is capable of going seventy-five miles an hour, and its stability at that rate is remarkable.

Sometimes the recasting of a construction is an effective method of eliminating offensive repetition:

Offensive: The idea of the Spinsters' Ball was that the girls invited the boys and paid all the expenses. The girls even called for the boys and after the ball brought the boys home.

Better: The idea of the Spinsters' Ball was that the girls invited the boys, paid all the expenses, and even escorted their partners to and from the dance.

¹ From "Lantern-Bearers" in *Across the Plains*.

- 25.6 In eliminating undesirable repetition, one should be careful to avoid a trite expression, an awkward construction, or a confusion in meaning. In fact, an occasional repetition should preferably be retained if the only alternative would be one of the faults just mentioned. For example, to employ the term *the Windy City* would be more objectionable than to repeat the name *Chicago*. For precautions concerning the reference of pronouns, see below, § E.

- 25.7 Sometimes repetition is necessary for clearness:

Confusing: He looks more like his older brother than his father.

Clear: He looks more like his older brother than like his father. (For the alternate meaning, say, "than does his father.")

- 25.8 In a compound substantive construction, an article used with the first member should be repeated if more than one person or thing are intended:

Two persons: A secretary and a treasurer will now be elected.

One person: A secretary and treasurer (or "a secretary-treasurer") will now be elected.

- 25.9 Occasionally repetition can be utilized effectively for emphasis:

First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen.—
Henry Lee.

- 25.10 An unpleasant repetition of sound should be avoided:

Offensive: I assume that you will resume your college work after Christmas.

Better: I suppose that you will resume your college work after Christmas.

E. REFERENCE OF PRONOUNS

Be sure that the antecedent of a pronoun, whether expressed or implied, is immediately clear and specific. Do not permit the reader or hearer to be puzzled even for a moment. Expressed antecedents are not necessary for interrogative, indefinite, and impersonal pronouns, and for personal pronouns in the first and second persons.

- 25.11 Do not use a construction in which either one of two nouns might be interpreted as the antecedent of a pronoun. Various methods of removing the confusion are to use *former* and *latter*, to employ a substitute noun, and to recast the sentence completely:

Confusing: If an upperclassman is displeased with something that a freshman does, he is punished for it.

Clear: If an upperclassman is displeased with something that a freshman does, the latter is punished for it.

Clear: If an upperclassman is displeased with something that a freshman does, the first-year student is punished for it.

Clear: A freshman is punished for doing something that is displeasing to an upperclassman.

Confusing: The farmer told his neighbor that his son had stolen his apples, and that he ought to be spanked.

Clear: The farmer said to his neighbor, "Your son has stolen my apples and ought to be spanked."

25.12 Do not permit a pronoun to refer to a noun that is inconspicuous or to one that is merely implied:

Objectionable: I had planned to become a lawyer, but I have lost my enthusiasm for it.

Improved: I had planned to enter the law profession, but I have lost my enthusiasm for it.

25.13 Do not use the impersonal *it* if there is a noun that might be erroneously regarded as an antecedent:

Slightly confusing: I followed the creek for some distance, but I soon decided that it took too long to go around the bends.

Improved: I followed the creek for some distance, but I soon decided that to go around the bends would require too much time.

25.14 Avoid the use of *you*, *they*, and *it* as indefinite pronouns:

Confusing: You don't have to teach ducks to swim.

Clear: One doesn't have to teach ducks to swim.

Objectionable: In China they do not have many railroads.

Improved: China does not have many railroads.

Crude: In today's paper it says that taxes will be lowered.

Improved: Today's paper reports that taxes will be lowered.

25.15 Whenever possible, avoid the use of a pronoun referring to a whole clause other than a noun clause. Particularly guard against a construction in which a substantive might be erroneously interpreted as the antecedent:

Confusing: Galsworthy's *Strife* deals with a modern problem, which adds to the interest of the play.

Clear: The fact that Galsworthy's *Strife* deals with a modern problem adds to the interest of the play.

25.16 As was pointed out in Chapter 7, § C, a pronoun agrees with its antecedent in person and number. Because such words as *one*,

a person, each, and everybody are singular, the student should be careful not to use plural pronouns with them.

Wrong: Each member of the committee was asked to give their opinion.

Right: Each member of the committee was asked to give his opinion.

CHAPTER 26

PARALLELISM

A. PARALLEL STRUCTURE

If two or more sentence elements or sentences are of the same kind grammatically, they are said to have **parallel structure**. For instance, in the first sentence below, three adjectives are used as the parts of a compound subjective complement; in the second, two infinitives are joined by *is*; and in the third, three independent clauses (with *are* understood in the second and the third) have similar structure:

He is **vain, selfish, and stubborn**.

To see **is to believe**.

Some books are **to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested**.—Bacon.

- 26.1 **Elements parallel in thought should ordinarily be parallel in structure.** For instance, the parts of the following series should all be adjectives or all be nouns:

Wrong: The newspaper was charged with being *malicious, scandalous, and a public menace*.

Parallel: The newspaper was charged with being *malicious, scandalous, and injurious* to the public welfare.

In the first sentence of the following passage, a series erroneously consists of an adjective (*old*), a noun (*student*), and a participle (*engaged*); in the second, an objective-infinitive construction and a noun clause are coordinate:

Wrong: I am twenty-three years *old*, a medical *student*, and *engaged* to a talented young woman. Do you advise *us to marry* now, or *that we wait* till I finish my course?

Parallel: I *am* twenty-three years old, *am studying* medicine, and *am engaged* to a talented young woman. [The series now consists of verbs.] Do you advise *us to marry* now or *to wait* till I finish my course? [Or, "Do you advise *that we marry* now, or *that we wait* till I finish my course?"]

In the next example an infinitive and a gerund are treated as if they were elements of the same kind:

Wrong: *To row* a boat is more strenuous than *playing* tennis.

Parallel: *Rowing* a boat is more strenuous than *playing* tennis.

Parallel: *To row* a boat is more strenuous than *to play* tennis.

If strict parallelism can not be obtained without unnatural wording, the interchange of elements having at least the same function—such as adjective and participle, adverb and adverbial phrase—is preferable.

26.2 **Coördinate points of an outline should be parallel in structure:**

Wrong: Advantages of the New Ford

I. Appearance

II. More comfortable

III. Has greater speed

Parallel: Advantages of the New Ford

[All nouns]

I. Appearance

II. Comfort

III. Speed

B. MISLEADING PARALLELISM

26.3 **Misleading parallelism should be avoided.** If elements are not parallel in thought, they should not be in coördinate constructions:

Wrong: Mrs. Courtney appeared in a white sports suit, a Panama hat, and high spirits.

Right: Mrs. Courtney was in high spirits and appeared in a white sports suit and a Panama hat.

26.4 **And or but should not be used to connect a *who* or a *which* clause with an element that is not an adjective clause.** Either the coördinating conjunction should be struck out or the element preceding it should also be made into an adjective clause:

Wrong: Leo Feist, music publisher and who died June 21, 1930, left a gross estate of \$1,614,923.

Right: Leo Feist, music publisher, who died June 21, 1930, left a gross estate of \$1,614,923.

Wrong: Handel, now known chiefly for his noble oratorios, but who in his day was more celebrated as an opera composer, wrote over fifty operas.

Right: Handel, who is now known chiefly for his noble oratorios, but who in his day was more celebrated as an opera composer, wrote over fifty operas.

C. CORRELATIVES

- 26.5 Correlatives are coördinating conjunctions going in pairs: *both . . . and, either . . . or, neither . . . nor, not only . . . but also*. Each of the pair of correlatives should be placed immediately before one of the parallel elements joined by them:

Wrong: He is living either in *Cleveland* or *Columbus*.

Right: He is living in *either Cleveland* or *Columbus*.

Right: He is living either *in Cleveland* or *in Columbus*.

CHAPTER 27

EMPHASIS

A. INTRODUCTION

Emphasis, as was pointed out in Chapter 24, § A, is highly important in writing. The general principle is that a sentence or paragraph becomes more forceful as a whole if the most important elements are made particularly conspicuous. Anything that increases the interest, attractiveness, and vividness of a composition contributes to emphasis, but the main methods (a few of which have already been discussed) are as follows.

B. EMPHASIS THROUGH STRUCTURE

- 27.1 One of the chief methods of emphasis is the subordination of the less important elements of the sentence (see Chapter 24).
- 27.2 Except in the situation mentioned in rule 27.3, the active voice is generally more forceful than the passive (see rule 14.2).
- 27.3 If the agent is unknown or less important than the receiver, the passive voice is usually more emphatic than the active (see rule 14.1)

- 27.4 **Emphasis can sometimes be secured through balance**, a method that depends upon parallel structure (discussed in Chapter 26 primarily from the standpoint of coherence). This is especially effective for antithesis, inasmuch as the contrast in thought is made all the more conspicuous by the similarity in form:

The man who hesitates is lost; the woman who hesitates is won.

Each was stern in his judgment of the other. To Gladstone, Disraeli was a man without religion and without political faith. To Disraeli, Gladstone was a man of assumed piety, who cloaked his skill in maneuvering with feigned scruples. Gladstone had all his days lived a model Sunday school life. At Eton he said his prayers, morning and evening. At Oxford the young men drank less in 1840 because Gladstone had been up in 1830. In Parliament he had immediately been the studious pupil and Peel's beloved disciple. Disraeli had lived a vagabond's life, in schools and politics alike. He had known the money lenders' parlors before those of ministers and bishops. Disraeli's enemies said he was not an honest man; Gladstone's enemies said of him that he was an honest man in the worst sense of the word. Etc."—André Maurois, *Disraeli*.

The balanced sentence may also be employed for similar ideas:

My son, hear the instruction of thy father, and forsake not the law of thy mother.—*Proverbs* 1:8.

Balance should be used with moderation. If carried to excess, it results in monotony (see Chapter 25, § A) and gives the impression of affectation and artificiality.

- 27.5 **Emphasis may be gained by separation**. If an idea stands alone as a sentence, it impresses itself more vividly upon the memory than if it must share the immediate attention with other ideas:

Weak: The law of supply and demand will be obeyed, the opposite swing of the pendulum will begin in time, and that is just what happened in 1929.

Emphatic: The law of supply and demand will be obeyed, and the opposite swing of the pendulum will begin in time. That is just what happened in 1929.

This method of emphasis should be reserved for the most important statements. If employed too frequently, it not only results in choppiness (see Chapter 24, § C) and monotony (see Chapter 25, § A), but, by tending to reduce all ideas to a common level, defeats its own purpose.

C. EMPHASIS BY POSITION

- 27.6 The forcefulness of a sentence is increased by the placing of the most important elements before or after prominent pauses. The end is ordinarily the most emphatic position,¹ inasmuch as the natural break after a sentence causes the primary attention of the reader or hearer to dwell longer upon the last words than upon the other portions. The beginning is generally second in conspicuousness, because it comes directly after a main pause (or, in the first sentence of a composition, is the very first material). An element standing immediately before a semicolon or some other strong internal break also gains in emphasis, but is normally less conspicuous than it would be if it formed either the end or the beginning of the sentence. Every sentence has certain words—"key-words" they may be called—upon which the meaning is chiefly based. In the following examples, these key-words are in bold-faced type, and the word groups containing them are italicized:

The car is old.

In all times there have been men with the ability to rule their fellows *by the power of speech*.—De Buffon.

Many people mistake *a familiar* for *a vulgar style*, and suppose that to write *without affectation* is to write *at random*.—Hazlitt.

The ideal arrangement, then, is to place the key-words (or their word groups) into the most conspicuous positions of the sentence.

In actual practice, however, this principle is subject to various limitations. The word order of the modern English sentence is too largely determined by grammatical relationships to permit a free arrangement of the parts; the necessity of unity and coherence

¹ An exception to this statement is to be found in the "lead" of a newspaper story—an introductory sentence giving the gist of the account. Here the beginning is the most emphatic position:

Weak: Yesterday at high noon at St. Luke's Episcopal Church, Albert Ross and Myra Leonard were married.

Emphatic: Albert Ross and Myra Leonard were married yesterday at high noon at St. Luke's Episcopal Church.

Again, a question like the following, in order that the interrogative pronoun may stand in an emphatic position at the beginning, may end with a preposition:

What are you referring to?

frequently precludes the placing of the main element into the most conspicuous position; the need of variety in sentence patterns occasionally causes a conflict; and the fact that the thought must run smoothly from sentence to sentence sometimes interferes with the order that would otherwise be desirable. Nevertheless, considerable manipulation of word order for the sake of emphasis is feasible. Adverbial modifiers can often be moved to the beginning, and frequently other adjustments can be made. Moreover, a construction with a weak ending can often be reworded in such a way that the final position will be occupied by a strong element (see also rules 27.7, 27.8, and 27.9).

27.7 For the last sentence of a paragraph, an emphatic close is particularly important (see rules 27.6, 27.8, and 27.9).

27.8 Emphasis may be gained by the use of the periodic sentence. A **periodic** sentence is one which is not grammatically complete until the end; it is contrasted with the **loose** sentence, in which the structure is grammatically complete one or more times before the close. Accordingly, sentences that are compound or that have non-restrictive modifiers at the end are always loose. If the subject or the predicate is reserved for the last or if phrases or dependent clauses are placed first and the independent clause is put last, a sentence is periodic:

Loose: It was known that Cheyte Sing had a large revenue, and it was suspected that he had accumulated a treasure.—Macaulay.

Loose: The loss cannot possibly be estimated when ancient opinions and rules of life are taken away.

Periodic: When ancient opinions and rules of life are taken away, the loss cannot possibly be estimated.—Burke.

Virtually periodic: In 1778, on the first breaking out of the war with France, Cheyte Sing was called upon to pay, in addition to his fixed tribute, an extraordinary contribution of fifty thousand pounds.—Macaulay. [Though this example would be grammatically complete four words before the end, the general effect is that of a periodic sentence.]

(For further examples of loose and periodic sentences, see the paragraph immediately preceding rule 27.7. The second, the fourth, and the fifth sentences are loose, whereas the first and the third are periodic.)

Notice that the periodic sentence keeps the reader in suspense. It is doubly emphatic, for the minor ideas are subordinated and

the main idea is placed at the end. In most good writing the loose sentence predominates; but the careful use of the periodic sentence, or of one which is virtually periodic, gives variety, firmness, and vigor.

- 27.9 **Parenthetical material like *however, I suppose, and it seems to me* should ordinarily not be put at the end of a sentence:**

Weak: The natives and the white people are on very friendly terms, I am told.

Emphatic: The natives and the white people, I am told, are on very friendly terms.

Likewise, the placing of a nominative absolute or a non-restrictive participle at the close of a sentence, though sometimes appropriate, is usually ineffective.

- 27.10 **The beginning of a sentence becomes highly emphatic if followed by a "buried" parenthetical element, such as a transitional expression (see rule 5.7):**

Weak: However, within two months he was penniless.

Emphatic: Within two months, however, he was penniless.

(For the punctuation of "buried" parenthetical elements, see rules 21.19 and 5.7.)

- 27.11 **In a series of parallel elements, emphasis may be achieved by means of the climactic order. If the members of the series differ in strength or value, they should be placed in the rising order of importance:**

Ludicrous: Being fond of nature, I enjoy walking in the mountains, the woods, and the cow pastures.

Emphatic: Being fond of nature, I enjoy walking in the cow pastures, the woods, and the mountains.

- 27.12 **A sentence element may be emphasized by being moved from its normal position. We are accustomed to the order of subject (with modifiers, if any), verb, object or subjective complement, adverbial modifiers; consequently, any departure from that arrangement attracts special attention:**

Normal: The answer came like a flash.

Very emphatic: **Like a flash** came the answer.

This method of emphasis, however, should be used sparingly. If employed too freely, it results in distortion and artificiality.

D. MISCELLANEOUS METHODS OF EMPHASIS

27.13 Emphasis is furthered by the omission of useless words (see Chapter 23).

27.14 Emphasis can sometimes be effected through the repetition of important words (see rule 25.9). In the following sentence, repetition is combined with transposed word order:

Never before in the history of this country has there been witnessed such a contest as that through which we have just passed. Never before in the history of American politics has a great issue been fought out as this issue has been, by the voters of a great party.—W. J. Bryan, “Cross of Gold” Speech.

In applying this method, one should be careful to avoid offensive repetition (see rules 25.5 and 27.15).

27.15 Emphasis is gained by variety in sentence structure and diction and by the use of specific words (see Chapter 25).

27.16 The occasional employment of italics (indicated in typing or script by underscoring) to emphasize words or passages is permissible (see rule 22.23). This device, however, should be used only in rare instances.

27.17 Emphasis can sometimes be attained by means of a rhetorical question—a question that implies its own answer:

Our ancestors, when but three millions in number, had the courage to declare their political independence of every other nation; shall we, their descendants, when we have grown to seventy millions, declare that we are less independent than our forefathers?—W. J. Bryan, “Cross of Gold” Speech.

CHAPTER 28

DICTION

A. PRECISENESS

28.1 Use the exact word. Because writing is chiefly for the purpose of transferring to the mind of the reader what is in the mind of the writer, make sure that you choose words with the right meanings:

Wrong: I should like to reiterate the adventures of a soldier of fortune whom I know. [*Reiterate* means "to repeat."]

Right: I should like to **relate** the adventures of a soldier of fortune whom I know.

Wrong: The purpose of the state examinations in medicine is to prevent uneducated physicians from practicing. [A person may be well educated in general without being well trained in medicine.]

Right: The purpose of the state examinations in medicine is to prevent **poorly trained** physicians from practicing.

- 28.2 **Avoid loose phrasing of all kinds.** Know definitely what you want to say, and then use the words essential for conveying your meaning to the reader:

Puzzling: In many colleges, unfavorable student authorities have weakened or even abolished fraternities.

Improved: In many colleges, **administrators who are not in favor of** fraternities have weakened or even abolished these societies.

Puzzling: The registration law protects qualified engineers from unqualified competition.

Improved: The registration law protects qualified engineers from **competition with unqualified persons**.

Loose: Nine of the twenty-six states require that the candidate be twenty-five years of age [may he be older?], whereas the rest demand that he be only twenty-one [may he not be older?].

Better: Nine of the twenty-six states require the candidate to be at least twenty-five years of age, whereas the rest **permit him to be as young as twenty-one**.

Be on the alert for certain familiar words which are used inaccurately time and time again, especially *case*, *character*, *nature*, *condition*, *degree*, *field*, *aspect*, and *factor*. Such inexactness is called "jargon" by Sir Arthur Quiller-Couch.¹ If you catch yourself using any of these words loosely, substitute the exact expression or omit the jargon without substitution. For example, read in your dictionary the various meanings of *case* and then examine the careless uses of the word in the following sentences from a student's discussion of "mercy killing":

What should be done with adults who have been hopelessly crippled or diseased and who wish to be put out of their misery? Many *cases* can be solved by instilling in the patient a new desire to live or by teaching him to take better care of himself. But again there are *cases* in which the individual is in constant agony and has absolutely no hope of cure. Suppose that he wishes to be put to

¹ See his amusing essay "On Jargon" in his *On the Art of Writing* (New York and Cambridge, Eng., 1916), pp. 100-26.

death, and that his family, if he has any, agrees that it would be the kindest thing to do. Three of the five *cases* told about in the above-mentioned confession were in this situation. In each *case*, the patient died happy—with a blessing for the doctor on his lips.

The inexactness and the unpleasant repetition in the paragraph can easily be avoided by substituting *problems* for *cases* in the second sentence and by rewriting the third, fifth, and sixth sentences:

. . . Many *problems* can be solved by instilling in the patient a new desire to live or by teaching him to take better care of himself. On the other hand, there is the individual who is in constant agony and has absolutely no hope of cure. Suppose that he wishes to be put to death, and that his family, if he has any, agrees that it would be the kindest thing to do. Three of the five *persons* told about in the above-mentioned confession were in this situation; and each of them died happy—with a blessing for the doctor on his lips.

- 28.3 **Normally use as specific words as are appropriate.** A specific word is more restricted in meaning than a *general* one and hence is more precise. These two terms, however, are merely relative. Thus *human being*, *horse*, *giraffe*, *fish*, and *insect* are specific in relation to *animal*; but *human being* is general in relation to *woman*, *boy*, *Indian*, and *Canadian*; moreover, even *woman* is general in relation to *wife*, *grandmother*, *queen*, *nun*, *washwoman*, and *Jewess*. Compare the three following versions of the same statement, the first being so general as to be ludicrous and the last being the most precise and effective:

Very general: The biped went away with his animal.

Less general: The man rode away on his horse.

Specific: The cowboy galloped away on his broncho.

Do not be content with *think* if you mean *meditate*, *muse*, *consider*, *suppose*, *believe*, *esteem*, *reflect*, *ponder*, or *judge*. Again, do not employ the adjective *nice* (made colorless by over-use and inaccurate use) if you mean *pleasing*, *attractive*, *considerate*, *kindly*, *moral*, or *delicious* (with such different meanings, *nice* is often used colloquially) or even if you mean *fastidious*, *discriminating*, *meticulous*, *precise*, or *subtle* (some of the correct synonyms of the word). The English language is rich in synonyms and near-synonyms. Though synonyms are words with similar meanings, they rarely mean exactly the same; if they did, one would drop out or at least change its meaning somewhat. Because of the great wealth of words with fine distinctions among them, the discrimi-

nating use of them adds accuracy and precision to one's writing and speaking.

If you can not think of the word which expresses the exact shade of meaning that you have in mind, look up a synonym in a dictionary or a book of synonyms. For many words, a good dictionary lists synonyms and points out the differences in meaning. Crabbe's *Synonymes*,¹ because of being devoted entirely to synonyms, is generally even better for this purpose. If you can not think of even a synonym, look up in Roget's *Thesaurus*¹ the nearest word that comes to your mind.

B. APPROPRIATENESS

- 28.4 Choose words that are appropriate to the subject, the occasion, and the tone. There are three main levels of diction: formal (or standard), colloquial, and vulgar. Standard words are those that are suitable for formal writing or speaking—such as *father, clerk, book, walk, black, often, and because*. Most words in common use are standard and may be employed whenever they express the right meanings. If a word is not appropriate for formal writing or speaking, that fact is indicated by such dictionaries as Webster's *New International* or *Collegiate* and Funk and Wagnalls' *New Standard* or *Coliege Standard*. Unless a word is of very recent origin, its omission from a good dictionary should generally be interpreted as implying that it is not standard.
- 28.5 Colloquialisms are words, expressions, or meanings that are permissible on informal occasions—such as in ordinary conversation or in a letter to an intimate acquaintance—but not in formal writing or speaking. Examples are *fix* (for *arrange* or *repair*), *claim* (for *assert* or *maintain*), and *lots of* (for *much* or *many*); for additional ones, see the "Glossary of Faulty Usage" in § F. In the above-mentioned dictionaries, colloquialisms are marked with *Colloq*. Occasionally authorities differ as to whether a particular word is appropriate for formal writing or not; and some colloquialisms of one period of time achieve sufficient dignity to be used formally in another period.
- 28.6 Contractions, because of having a colloquial flavor, should be used sparingly in formal writing. For instance, *you're* and *doesn't* are less desirable than *you are* and *does not* on formal occasions.

¹ Available at a dollar a copy (New York: Grosset and Dunlap).

- 28.7 **Vulgarisms (sometimes called "illiteracies") are words and expressions that should always be avoided—even on informal occasions.** They are characteristic of the language of uncultivated people. Examples are *ain't*, *he don't*, and *nowheres*; for additional ones, see the "Glossary of Faulty Usage" in § F below.
- 28.8 **Slang should normally be avoided.** Slang is hard to define. George Krapp says that it is characterized by "vivid expressiveness, in which there enters a degree of fancy, humor, extravagance, and always an implication of exceptional social intimacy and patness. Slang is above all the language of highly self-conscious social groups, of smart people, of flippant people, of sporting people, or at least of people who have smart, flippant, or sporting moments."¹ Examples are *lousy*, *rotten*, *buck* ("dollar"), and *bean* ("head"). Some slang expressions are vulgarisms, and some are colloquialisms. Though many are effective the first time they are heard, they generally lose their freshness and vitality through repetition and become trite. Occasionally one is adopted into the standard language, but most of them are short-lived. **If a slang expression is used in formal writing, it should be enclosed in quotation marks as an apology.**
- 28.9 **An archaism is an old word that has practically gone out of use and hence has a flavor of antiquity, such as *lore* in the sense of "wisdom" or "counsel."** An **obsolete** word is one that has entirely dropped out of use, such as *swain* in the sense of "boy" or "male servant." A **poetic** word is one that is appropriate only in poetry, such as *eve* in the sense of "evening."
- 28.10 **"Fine writing" is in bad taste.** By this is meant language that is more high-sounding and pretentious than is justified by the subject or the occasion. In the following example, for instance, the simpler and more direct statement is preferable:

"Flowery": At first the flames [in the fireplace] were mere tongues licking the new pine log, but soon they were leaping in frenzied excitement—in a determined endeavor to penetrate the innermost crannies and recesses of the murky chamber.

Simpler and more direct: At first the only light in the darkness came from tiny flames playing around the new pine log, but soon a brilliant blaze flooded the room with light.

¹ *A Comprehensive Guide to Good English* (Chicago and New York, 1927), Introduction, p. xvii.

28.11 Fresh diction should be employed; trite, hackneyed expressions should be carefully avoided. Any food, no matter how palatable, becomes distasteful if served in the same form three times a day for an indefinite period. Anything experienced too often either becomes obnoxious or unnoticed. Certain words and especially certain combinations of words have been repeated so many times that they are either distasteful or powerless. Make your speech and writing more individual and emphatic by substituting fresh words and original phrases for these stale expressions. In the following incomplete list of trite expressions, check those which you are guilty of using; to it add others which you hear or read:

abreast of the times	frightened out of my wits
a budding genius	green with envy
a dull thud	he-man
a good time was enjoyed by all	her senses reeled
along this line	his better half
a milling mass of humanity	hungry as a bear
a pet aversion	hurriedly retraced his steps
a raving beauty	it dawned upon me
a ripe old age	last but not least
aroused memories long dead	launched into eternity
as fast as his little legs could	lead a dog's life
carry him	light as a feather
as if he had lost his last friend	like a bolt out of the clear sky
as luck would have it	more luck than sense
as red as a beet	paralyzed with fright
as white as snow	point with pride
at one fell swoop	pure and simple
a valley nestling between two	silence broken only by
mountains	the dying sun's last flickering ray
battered specimen of humanity	the fair sex, the gentler sex
beat a hasty retreat	the finer things of life
beautiful but dumb	the happy pair
beggars description	the last sad rites
burning the midnight oil	the proud possessor
conspicuous by its absence	the sea of matrimony
dashed madly about	the sun rose in majestic splendor
did ample justice to the boun-	throw caution to the winds
teous repast	too full for utterance
didn't get to first base	wax poetic or sentimental
doomed to disappointment	weather-beaten face
eke out a precarious existence	wended their way
fit as a fiddle	words fail to express
food for thought	work like a dog

28.12 **Unidiomatic words and expressions should not be used.**

An idiom is a word combination determined by custom. A foreigner may think it peculiar that we employ the indefinite article in *a cold*, the definite article in *the grippe*, and no article with *pneumonia*; but the fact is that we do, and the person who would say *the pneumonia* or *a grippe* would violate English usage. Many idioms involve prepositions. The following faulty idioms are common:

<i>faulty</i>	<i>correct</i>
angry at a person	angry with a person
blame it on a person	blame a person for it
different than	different from
go in a house [motion into]	go into a house
independent from	independent of
in respect of	with respect to
insight to	insight into
instructor of	instructor in
interest for	interest in
plan on enrolling	plan to enroll
preferable than	preferable to
superior than	superior to
try and come [colloquial]	try to come [preferable]
with regards to, in regards to	with regard to, as regards

- 28.13 Finally, it is **essential that the diction be appropriate to one's readers**. The geologist who travels across the country to the state of Washington to study that curious formation known as the Grand Coulee will describe it in scientific terms for fellow geologists in a scientific journal. An engineer reporting to other engineers on some matters relating to the dam being built there will use many words not known to the layman. But the geologist or the engineer writing for the general reader of *Travel Magazine* or the *National Geographic Magazine* will avoid scientific and technical terms in giving the same information. Besides, he may want to stimulate the imagination of his readers and to give them the emotional reaction he had when he first saw that fascinatingly barren region; if so, he will use familiar words which are rich in suggestive power.

C. SUGGESTIVENESS

- 28.14 **Concrete words, if the thought or substance makes them possible, are generally to be preferred to abstract ones.** The former are words that appeal to the senses. Though *concrete* is not

really a synonym of *specific* (see rule 28.3), the more specific a word is, the more concrete it is likely to be. *Dishonesty* is abstract; *using a "pony" in an examination* is concrete. Likewise, that a certain region is poverty-stricken is an abstract statement; in concrete terms the facts are that the people are using sagebrush for fuel, that almost their only food is potatoes, that the children walk to school barefooted even in cold weather, and that their spindly legs and wan, old faces show the effects of undernourishment. Notice that each concrete word or statement mentioned forms a more definite picture in one's mind than do the abstractions. In that fact lies their greater effectiveness: by making contact with one's sense experience, they stimulate the mind with images and arouse the emotions. Accordingly, they make writing clearer, more vivid, more emphatic, and more interesting. The student should not conclude, however, that abstract words and statements are never useful. Sometimes the thought is so abstract as to preclude concreteness in the presentation, and often an abstract statement serves as a good introduction to concrete details. The aim should merely be to make the treatment as concrete as the nature of the thought or substance permits.

Expositional and argumentative writing is made concrete and vivid with examples and illustrations. This, however, is more a matter of paragraph development than of diction.

28.15 **Diction strong in suggestion adds to the effectiveness of a piece of writing.** Many words, especially familiar ones, suggest or imply far more than their literal meanings. The actual, or "dictionary," meaning of a word is called its **denotation**; that which it suggests in addition to its actual meaning is called its **connotation**. *Steed* denotes "horse," but it usually connotes knights, medieval armor, and tournaments; hence it would be inappropriate, except for desired humorous effect, in a sketch of a Western cowboy. *Mother* denotes "a female parent," but to most people it means far more—the personification of love, devotion, sacrifice. On the other hand, many words are practically neutral or colorless in respect to connotation, such as *horse*, *hause*, *residence*, *dwelling*, *book*. Because of the rich and favorable connotation of *home*, real estate agents like to urge people "to buy a home" instead of using *hause* or *residence*.

Connotation also has a bearing on appropriateness, which was treated above in § B. For instance, the colloquialisms (see rule

28.5) of the following sentence are inconsistent with the dignity of a great poem like Milton's *Paradise Lost*:

Inconsistent in tone: Book VI tells about a row in heaven in which the devil and his angels got kicked out.

Consistent: Book VI tells about a combat in heaven in which the devil and his angels were cast out.

28.16 **Misleading suggestions should be avoided:**

Faulty: The fifteen-year friendship of Lyle Ross and Martha Sorenson was ended by marriage yesterday. [Did they become enemies?]

Better: The fifteen-year friendship of Lyle Ross and Martha Sorenson culminated in marriage yesterday.

Faulty: Eat here and die happy. [Slogan of a hotel in Nebraska] [Would eating there hasten death?]

Better: Eat here and be happy the rest of your life.

28.17 **Figures of speech, if in good taste, help to make writing vivid.** Through the presentation of a picture to the mind, they make an abstract idea concrete, clear, and emphatic. In contending that extra-curricular activities detract too much attention from the regular work of the classes and the laboratories in college, Woodrow Wilson once wrote: "The side shows are so numerous, so diverting,—so important, if you will—that they have swallowed up the circus, and those who perform in the main tent must often whistle for their audiences, discouraged and humiliated."¹ This picture is more impressive and effective than merely a literal statement that the majority of college and university students take more interest in activities like football, dramatics, and social affairs than in their studies. To be effective, however, figures of speech must be fresh, natural, graphic, and appropriate to the context, and they should not be introduced too frequently.

Though the classification of figures of speech is rarely important for the composition student, the definition of several common kinds will help him to understand what the term means. A simile is "a figure of speech by which one thing, action, or relation is likened or explicitly compared in one or more aspects, often with *as* or *like*, to something of different kind or quality; an imaginative comparison"²: "The man

¹ "What Is a College for?" *Scribner's Magazine*, XLVI (1909), 576.

² Webster's *New International Dictionary*, 2d ed. (Springfield, Mass., 1934), p. 2340.

without ambition is like a ship without a rudder" (Carlyle). A literal comparison is not a figure: "John looks like his father." A metaphor resembles a simile except that the comparison is implied rather than stated; instead of being said to be *like* something else, a thing is spoken of as if it *were* the other thing. To this category belongs the figure of speech quoted from Woodrow Wilson in the preceding paragraph. A personification is a "representation of an inanimate object or abstract idea as a personality or as endowed with personal attributes"¹: "O Death, where is thy sting."² Hyperbole is obvious exaggeration that is highly extravagant: "He is quick as lightning." "The vase broke into a thousand pieces."

- 28.18 **Mixed or unsustained figures of speech should be avoided.** Carry one figure throughout instead of changing from one to another or suddenly dropping back into literal language. Notice the conflicting mental images in the following sentences:

Senator Jordan was snowed under in the great Democratic landslide. The coward tweaked my nose behind my back when I was not present to defend myself.

At the first low rumbling of the disease [that is, friction between employer and employees] and before it has gained a foothold, it should be nipped in the bud, instead of waiting till it has become a horrible monster.

D. EMPHASIS IN DICTION

- 28.19 **Diction should be vigorous and emphatic.** The student should not assume, however, that he can achieve this result by heaping up superlatives or intensive adverbs or by making stronger statements than the facts justify. Real vigor in diction is attained chiefly through certain principles already discussed—especially through variety (see rule 25.5), effective repetition (25.9), the omission of unessential words (Chapter 23), and the use of specific words (rule 28.3), concrete words (28.14), direct and relatively simple words (28.10), fresh words and expressions (28.11), suggestive words (28.15), and occasional figures of speech (28.17). (For the principles of emphasis that apply chiefly to the sentence, see Chapter 27.)

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 1828.

² I Corinthians 15:55.

E. INCREASE IN VOCABULARY

In order to be able to select the words which are the most precise, appropriate, and suggestive, one must have an adequate vocabulary. A limited stock of words results in weak, colorless writing and monotonous or halting speech. An objective test of the vocabularies of hundreds of people recently showed that a college person's knowledge of words increases much more rapidly before graduation than afterwards. This study also revealed that there is a close correlation between vocabulary and success—that in business the major executives and in the professions the leading representatives have the largest vocabularies.¹

How can you improve your vocabulary? By far the most important process through which adults learn new words is reading. Not only is this a natural way of selecting the words that one should know, but to see a word several times in actual use helps one to remember it, to learn its exact meaning, and to become familiar with its connotation and atmosphere. You should have a good dictionary constantly on your desk to look up the meaning and the pronunciation of every new word you see or hear. Do not be satisfied with a general guess. Get a definite understanding of words which you have seen but of which you have only a hazy conception. One should read extensively in standard authors—authors who use a wide range of words with exactness and the proper connotations. A person who does little reading rarely builds up a good vocabulary. Another aid in gaining command of words is translation from foreign languages, provided that one tries to reproduce the material in as good English as possible. The search for the precise words to express given meanings increases one's ability to use language effectively. Dictionaries and other word books—such as Crabbe's *Synonymes*, Roget's *Thesaurus*, Krapp's *A Comprehensive Guide to Good English*, and Fowler's *A Dictionary of Modern English Usage*—are indispensable to a person in learning the meanings of new words that he meets in his reading and in selecting the right words in his writing.

Increase your **active vocabulary** by taking over words from your **passive vocabulary**. By the former are meant the words that one uses in his speaking or writing, and by the latter the

¹ Johnson O'Connor, "Vocabulary and Success," *Atlantic Monthly*, CLIII (1934), 160-66.

words that he understands but does not use. Study your own speech. What words do you overwork? Do you limit yourself, for instance, to half a dozen adjectives? Do you apply indiscriminately to everything of which you approve the terms *swell*, *nice*, *sweet*, *bully*, or *lovely*? to everything of which you do not approve the terms *rotten*, *awful*, or *lousy*? If so, overcome your laziness and think of the exact and appropriate word. If you will expand your speaking vocabulary, you will not be at a loss for words when you write; if, in writing, you take time to find the most effective words, you will improve your speaking ability as well as your writing. Secure for yourself the rich and effective vocabulary which you admire in others. It is well to keep a notebook in which you enter new words with their meanings and pronunciations. Review your list frequently. Each week select from it a certain number of the most useful words for your mastery; study the exact meaning of each, its connotation, and its various forms (for example, *tacit*, *tacitly*, *tacitness*; *taciturn* and *taciturnity* are also closely related). Also observe sentences in which the words are used, for you are liable to make ludicrous errors if you follow the literal meanings without regard for idiom and usage. (*Procrastinate* means "to put off," but the student who wrote, "The picnic was procrastinated," failed to take into consideration that the word applies only to something that should be done or carried out but is put off through neglect or indecision.) Then use the words in their different forms on every possible occasion during that week. Students who have followed that plan have been amazed to find how rapidly their vocabularies have grown. Besides, they acquired an unexpected amount of general information.

F. GLOSSARY OF FAULTY USAGE

28.20 An alphabetical list of faulty expressions is given below. For definitions of *colloquialism*, *vulgarism*, and *slang*, see rules 28.5, 28.7, and 28.8, respectively. If in doubt about a word or expression not included here, consult a standard dictionary or such reference books as Krapp's *A Comprehensive Guide to Good English* and Fowler's *A Dictionary of Modern English Usage*.

A, an. *A* is the form of the indefinite article before a word beginning with a consonant sound, and *an* before one beginning with a vowel sound: *a book*, *a history*, *a union*, *such a one*; *an apple*, *an hour*. (Some writers, however, use *an* before a word beginning with *h* in an unaccented syllable: *an historian*.)

Accept, except. *Accept* is always a verb meaning "to receive," "to take when offered," "to agree to"; *except* is usually a preposition meaning "with the exception of," but is also used as a verb meaning "to exclude."

Ad, auto, exam, gym, phone, photo, prof. These shortenings are colloquial and should be avoided in formal writing or speaking. Write them out in full. (*Phone* and *auto* will probably soon be accepted as standard.)

Advise. Incorrect and trite in the sense of "inform" (in letters).

Affect, effect. *Affect*, always a verb, means "to influence" or "produce an effect upon" (that is, merely "to change"): "The war affected several of our industries." *Effect* as a verb means "to bring about" (often in the face of obstacles): "He effected his escape." *Effect* as a noun means "result" or "consequence" (that is, "the thing brought about"): "We are still feeling the effects of the war."

Aggravate. The correct meaning is "to increase." In the sense of "irritate," "annoy," or "provoke," the word is colloquial.

Ain't. A vulgarism—always to be avoided. The contraction of *is not* is *isn't*, and that of *are not* is *aren't*; *am not* does not have an acceptable contraction.

All-around. *All-round* is preferable.

All the farther [faster, later, and so forth]. Incorrect for *as far* [*fast, late, and so forth*] *as*: "That is *as far as* [not *all the farther*] I read."

Allusion, illusion. *Allusion* means "an indirect reference," *illusion* "a deceptive appearance" or "a false impression."

Already, all ready. *Already* is an adverb meaning "previously": "He has already gone." *All ready* consists of the adverb *all* ("entirely") and the adjective *ready* ("prepared"): "He is *all ready* to go."

Alright. Should always be spelled as two words: *all right*.

Altogether, all together. *Altogether* is an adverb meaning "entirely": "altogether pleasant." *All together* consists of the adjective *all* and the adverb *together* ("in one group or mass"): "They went *all together*."

And etc. *And* is superfluous, inasmuch as *etc.* is an abbreviation of *et cetera*, meaning "and the rest," "and so forth."

Any place, every place, no place, someplace. *Anywhere, everywhere, nowhere, somewhere* are preferable.

Anywheres, nowheres. Vulgar for *anywhere, nowhere*.

Apt, likely. To express mere probability, do not use *apt* for *likely*: "He is likely [not *apt*] to be elected." *Apt* means "suitable," "inclined," "talented": "an *apt* explanation," "*apt* in music," "an *apt* student." See also **Liab**.

As. (1) Vulgar if used for *whether* or *that*: "I do not know *whether* [not *as*] you will like this region." (2) Vulgar if treated as a preposition in the following construction: "He is as tall as I [not *me*]." See rule 11.20. (3) In causal relationships, *because* is preferable (though *as* is not incorrect). See rule 11.17. (4) In negative comparisons, *so . . . as* is preferable to *as . . . as* (though the latter is not incorrect). See rule 11.1.

At. Vulgar with *where*. *Where* ("at or in what place") already includes the meaning of *at*: "Where are you?" [not "*Where* are you *at*?"]

Auto. See **Ad**.

Awful, awfully. *Awful* means "filling with awe" or "filled with awe." Colloquial in such meanings as "very," "very bad," "monotonous," "serious," "disastrous": "The weather was **very** [not *awful* or *awfully*] hot." "The lecture was **monotonous** [not *awful*]." "I have made a serious [not *an awful*] mistake."

Back of, in back of. Colloquial for *behind* or *at the back of*: "The garage is **behind** [or *at the back of*; not *back of* or *in back of*] the store."

Badly. Colloquial after *feel* (see rule 2.10) or in the sense of "very much": "He feels **bad** [not *badly*; still better: *is sorry*] about forgetting to invite you." "I wanted **very much** [not *badly*] to go."

Balance. Incorrect as a synonym for *the remainder, the rest, the others*.

Because. See rule 12.11.

Beside, besides. *Beside*, a preposition, means "by the side of." *Besides*, a preposition or an adverb, means "except" or "in addition."

Between, among. For three or more persons or objects, *among* is preferable to *between*.

Brainy. Colloquial for *intelligent*.

Bust, busted, bursted. Vulgar for *burst*. See rule 19.1.

Can. *Can*, denoting power or ability, should not be used instead of *may*, denoting permission.

Can not help but. A confusion between *can but* and *can not help*. The use of *but* ("except") with *not* results in a double negative. Say, "I can not help feeling [a gerund; not *but feel*] sorry for him"; or, "I can *but* feel sorry for him."

Caused by. *Caused*, a participle, should not modify a verb. See rule 16.9.

Censor, censure. *Censor* means "to examine written or printed material in order to prohibit publication, performance, broadcasting, or mailing if objectionable"; *censure* means "to criticize adversely." *A censor* is "one who censors"; *censure* is "adverse criticism."

Claim. Means "to demand as due." Colloquial for *assert* or *maintain*: "He **maintains** [not *claims*] that this is a great novel."

Complexed. Do not substitute for *complexioned*: "A **light-complexed** [not *light-complexed*] woman"; or, "A woman of a **light complexion**."

Continual, continuous, continually, continuously. *Continual* means "frequently repeated": "I was interrupted **continually**." *Continuous* means "occurring without break": "I practiced **continuously** for four hours."

Cute. Colloquial in various meanings ranging from "clever" and "shrewd" to "amusing" and "attractive": "A **cute trick**," "a **cute child**," "a **cute hat**." Use the exact word.

Data. A plural. See rule 7.31.

Date. Not proper in formal writing or speech in the sense of "engagement" or "appointment." Slang if used to refer to a person with whom one has a social appointment.

Different than. The correct idiom is *different from*. See rule 2.9.

Don't. Incorrect in "he [she, it] don't." See rule 7.19.

Doubt. (1) Say, "I had no doubt **that** [not *but that* or *but what*] he would go." The use of *but* ("except") results in a double negative. (2) *Doubt that* implies a strong negative probability: "I doubt **that** it will rain." *Doubt whether* merely introduces two possibilities without implying which is the more probable: "I doubt **whether** you will be appointed"; but this meaning can generally be expressed by the negative of *know* with less danger of a misunderstanding: "I do **not know whether** you will be appointed." *Doubt if*, though established by usage, is less logical than *doubt that* or *doubt whether*, because the real function of *if* is to introduce a conditional clause.

Dove. Colloquial as the past tense of *dive*; *dived* is preferable.

✓ **Due to.** *Due*, an adjective, should not modify a verb. See rule 3.1.

Dumb. Colloquial for *stupid* or *dull*. The real meaning of *dumb* is "unable to speak."

Each other, one another. Many careful writers limit *each other* to two and use *one another* for more than two, but others disregard this distinction.

Effect. See **Affect**.

Else. In combinations of *else* with words like *somebody* and *everyone*, the possessive should preferably be formed as follows: *somebody else's*, *everybody else's*. This form has been established by usage and can be justified grammatically by the principle that a closely related word group normally adds the sign of the possessive at the end (see rule 9.9). *Somebody's else* and *everyone's else*, though correct, sound awkward and pedantic.

Enthuse. Vulgar for *to be enthusiastic*.

Etc. In formal writing, preferably spell *etc.* out in full in English (as "and so forth"). To avoid having the sentence end with a weak element (see rule 27.6), use even *and so forth* sparingly; whenever possible, eliminate the words by completing the list or by introducing it with *such as* or *for example*: "We studied various poets—for example, Wordsworth, Shelley, and Keats" [not "We studied Wordsworth, Shelley, Keats, and so forth"]. See also **And etc.**

Every place. See **Any place**.

Exam. See **Ad**.

Except. See **Accept**.

Expect. Incorrect as a synonym for *suppose*.

✓ **Farther, further.** Many careful writers and speakers use *farther* to refer to space, and *further* to time, quantity, or degree: "We walked **farther** today than yesterday." "Let us look **further** into this matter." Others, however, make no distinction between the two words.

Fine. Incorrect as an adverb: "The engine works well [not *fine*]." The strict meaning of the adjective is "excellently made" or "not coarse"; but the use of *fine* as a rather general term of approbation, though not sanctioned by all authorities, is fairly well established. Nevertheless, in formal writing the substitution of a more specific word is often desirable.

Fix. (1) Colloquial for *to put to rights, to mend, to repair*. (2) Slang for *situation* or *plight*: "We were in a serious situation [not *bad fix*]."

Funny. Colloquial for *odd, queer, strange*.

Gent. Vulgar for *gentleman*.

Gentleman, lady. Affected substitutes for *man* and *woman*. Except in direct address (as a mark of courtesy), *gentleman* and *lady* should not be used unless a distinction between good and ill breeding (or between genteel and not genteel birth) is involved: "The committee consists of three *men* [not *gentlemen*] and two *women* [not *ladies*]" ; "Mrs. Sharp was treated by a *woman* [not *lady*] doctor" ; "Miss Horn is a sales-woman [not *saleslady*]."

Got, gotten. *Have got* is colloquial for *have* or *possess*: "I *have* [not *have got*] a long lesson." In the sense of "have secured," however, *have got* is proper: "I *have got* [but better: *have brought*] the mail already." As the past participle of *get*, *got* is preferable to *gotten*; see rule 19.1.

Grand. Means "of imposing magnitude, majesty, or nobility." Should not be used loosely of things or persons not truly *grand*.

Guess. Colloquial for *believe, expect, suppose*.

Guy. Colloquial or slang for *man, boy, or fellow*.

Gym. See *Ad*.

Had better. See *Would better*.

Had ought. Vulgar for *ought* or *must*.

Had rather. Both *had rather* and *would rather* are correct.

Hardly, scarcely. The use of *hardly* or *scarcely* with another negative is a double negative: "I could [not *couldn't*] hardly walk."

Healthy, healthful. *Healthy* means "having health": "a *healthy* man." *Healthful* means "promoting health": "a *healthful* climate." *Healthy* as a substitute for *healthful* is colloquial.

Help but. See *Can not help but*.

Here, there. See *This here, that there*.

Hissself, theirselves. Vulgar for *himself, themselves*.

Honorable. See *Reverend*.

Human. Generally considered incorrect as a noun. Substitute *human being*.

Hung. Incorrect when referring to an execution: "The criminal was hanged [not *hung*]." Right: "We hung our coats on a tree."

If. Not desirable as a substitute for *whether*: "Let me know *whether* [if not desirable] you can come." In this particular example the use of *if* would imply that, if the person addressed can not come, he is not expected to inform the speaker. See also *Doubt*.

In, into. With verbs expressing motion to a place, the correct preposition is *into*: "I went *into* [not *in*] the house."

In back of. See *Back of*.

Inside of. (1) *Of* is unnecessary: "He is inside the house." (2) Do not use *inside* in referring to time: "He will be home *within* [not *inside* or *inside of*] a week."

Its, it's. Do not confuse the possessive *its* (meaning "of it") and *it's* (contracted from *it is*). See rule 9.1.

Kind, sort. Being singular, *kind* and *sort* should not be modified by *these* or *those*: "this [not *these*] kind of books."

Kind of, sort of. (1) Should not be followed by *a*: "He is that **kind of** [not *kind of a*] person." (2) Should not be used adverbially: "He is rather [or somewhat; not *kind of* or *sort of*] stupid." (3) *Kinda* and *sorta* are illiterate spellings of *kind of* and *sort of*.

Lay, lie. *Lay* is often confused with *lie*. See rule 19.3.

Learn. Vulgar for *teach*: "I tried to **teach** [not *learn*] him to swim."

Leave. Incorrect for *let*: "Let [not *leave*] me go."

Less, fewer. *Less* refers to degree, value, or amount, and *fewer* to number. With a plural, in other words, *fewer* is preferable: "fewer people." Right: "less milk."

Liable. May be substituted for *likely* only when it refers to an *undesirable* contingency: "He is **liable** [not *liable*] to be awarded a scholarship."

Right: "He is *liable* to fail in the course." See also **Apt**.

Like. Should not be used as a conjunction (for *as*, *as if*, or *that*). See rules 11.11 and 11.12.

Loan. In general writing, *lend* is preferable to *loan* as a verb: "I **lent** [*loaned* not desirable] him a dollar."

Lots of. Colloquial for *much* or *many*.

Lovely. Means "lovable" or "having a delicate beauty." Should not be overworked, or be substituted for such words as *pleasant*, *delightful*, *striking*, and *colorful*. The exact word should be used.

Mad. Colloquial for *angry* or *vexed*. The real meaning of *mad* is "insane."

May. See **Can**.

Mighty. Colloquial in the sense of "very."

Most, almost. Do not use *most* for *almost*: "Almost [not *Most*] all of us became ill."

Nice. Means "demanding, or characterized by, close discrimination," as in "a nice problem," "a nice distinction." Colloquial in such senses as "pleasing," "pleasant," "kind," "considerate," "agreeable," and "admirable."

No account. Colloquial for *of no account*, *worthless*.

No good. Colloquial for *not good*, *worthless*, *of no value*.

No place. See **Any place**.

Nowhere near. Vulgar for *not nearly*.

Nowheres. Vulgar for *nowhere*.

O, oh. The form *O* is used mainly before nouns in direct address, is always capitalized, and is not followed by any punctuation. If the interjection stands alone or if a comma follows it, the form *oh* should be employed, and this should not be capitalized unless it begins a sentence, a direct quotation, or a line of verse. If *oh* is followed by an exclamation point, the next word should be treated as the beginning of a new sentence.

Of. (1) Illiterate spelling of *have* in such word groups as *could of*, *will of*, *must of*, and *would of*: "He **could have** [not *of*] won." (2) Unnecessary in *inside of*, *outside of*, *off of*, *remember of*, *smell of*, and *taste of*: "He is outside the house."

One, one's, he, his. Some authorities condemn the use of *he*, *his*, or *himself* to refer to the indefinite pronoun *one*, insisting that *one*, *one's*, or *oneself* should be employed for the purpose: "One should be careful of

one's health." The former, however, is sanctioned by the fact that its person, number, and gender (masculine form for common gender) are consistent: "One should be careful of his health." *One . . . he (his, himself)* is preferred by many people, inasmuch as *one . . . one (one's, oneself)* is extremely formal and stiff and frequently results in unpleasant repetition. Anybody who hesitates to use a form of *he* with *one* can generally still avoid *one . . . one* by changing the construction: "A person should be careful of his health." "People should be careful of their health."

Only. Should not be substituted for *but* or *except that*: "They would have come but [not *only*] they had to work."

Out loud. Colloquial for *aloud*.

Outside of. See **Of**, 2.

Overly. Colloquial for *very*.

Over with. Colloquial for *over* or *done*: "Well, that is over [or done; not *over with*]."

Party. Not to be used for *person* except when the person is taking part in some transaction: "Somebody [not a *party*] wants you at the telephone." Right: "He was not a party to the contract."

Phone. See **Ad**.

Photo. See **Ad**.

Plenty. A noun. Colloquial as an adjective or an adverb: "We have enough [not *plenty*] time." "This coat will be warm enough [not *plenty warm*]."

Practical, practicable. *Practical* means "pertaining to or governed by actual use and experience as contrasted with ideals and speculations": "a practical person." *Practicable* means "capable of being put into operation": "a practicable plan."

Preferable. Should be followed by *to*—not *than*.

Principal, principle. *Principal* is an adjective meaning "main"; it is also a noun meaning "*main* or head official of a school" or "capital [that is, *main* sum], as opposed to interest." *Principle* is nearly always a noun, meaning "essential character," "general truth," or "rule of action"; as a verb it is used chiefly in the form of the past participle: "an unprincipled man."

Prof. See **Ad**.

Proven. *Proved* is the preferable form of the past participle of *prove*.

Providing, provided. See rule 11.18.

Quite. Means "wholly," "entirely." Colloquial for *very* or *rather*: "He is *very* [not *quite*] poor." *Quite a bit*, *quite a few*, and *quite a little* are colloquialisms.

Raise. (1) For confusion with *rise*, see rule 19.2. (2) Incorrect in the sense of "rear": raise wheat or hogs, rear or bring up children.

Real. An adjective—not to be used for the adverb *very*: "It is **very** [not *real*] cold."

Reason is because. See rule 12.11.

Refer back. Because *re-* means "back," *back* is superfluous in the following sense: "The pronoun *he* refers [not *refers back*] to the noun *judge*."

Repeat again. Because *re-* means "again," *again* is superfluous.

Reverend, Honorable. If used with only the last name, *Reverend* and *Honorable* should not be abbreviated and should be followed by *Mr.*: "I heard the **Reverend Mr.** [not *Rev.* or *Reverend*] Stone today."

✓ **Same.** (1) Should not now be used as a pronoun except in legal documents: "We have repaired the pen and mailed it [not *the same*] to you." (2) Should not be substituted for *in the same way*: "The second experiment was done *in the same way* [not *the same*] as the first one."

Scarcely. See **Hardly**.

Set. For confusion with *sit*, see rule 19.4.

Shall, will. For the traditional distinction, see Chapter 6, § D. *Will* (instead of *shall*) for simple futurity in the first person is established as good colloquial English and is fast becoming accepted as standard. The same comment applies to the corresponding use of *would* (instead of *should*).

Shape. Colloquial for *condition*: "The house is in good **condition** [not *shape*]."

Smart. (1) Colloquial for *intelligent* or *impudent*: "He is an **intelligent** [not *a smart*] child." "The clerk became **impudent** [not *smart*]." (2) Colloquial for *fashionable*: "the **smart** set," "a **smart** hat." *Right smart* is provincial (that is, peculiar to certain regions) for *large*: "a **right smart** crop of wheat."

So. (1) Should not be used as an intensive adverb unless the meaning is completed by an adverbial clause of degree; see rule 11.19. (2) Should not be used for *so that* to express purpose. (3) Should be employed sparingly as a transitional adverb expressing result, because its overuse gives the effect of childishness and superficiality. Sometimes all that is necessary is to delete the word, and sometimes the mere substitution of a more forceful equivalent (such as *consequently*, *hence*, *accordingly*, or *therefore*) is sufficient. Generally, however, the best remedy for a weak *so*-clause of result is to eliminate *so* and to subordinate the preceding clause; see 24.2 (4) The simple *so* of result, a transitional adverb (see 5.5), should not be confused with *so that*, a subordinating conjunction (see page 62). The normal punctuation before the former is a semicolon (see 5.5) and before the latter a comma (see 11.8). Some modern writers (rarely the better ones) treat the simple *so* of result as a coordinating conjunction—that is, place a comma before it—but that practice is not generally sanctioned for formal writing. Except in the rare instances in which a period or a dash is justifiable, the student is advised to use a semicolon.

Some. Should not be used as an adverb except before numerals: "He is somewhat [not *some*] better."

Someplace. See **Any place**.

Somewheres. Vulgar for *somewhere*.

Sort, a sort of, sorta. See **Kind, Kind of**.

Such. Should not be used as an intensive adverb unless the meaning is completed by an adverbial clause of degree; see rule 11.19.

Superior. To be followed by *to*—not *than*. *More superior* is vulgar for *superior*.

Sure. An adjective—not an adverb: “It is certainly [or *surely*; not *sure*] hot today.”

Suspicion. Incorrect as a verb: “I suspected [not *suspicioned*] his brother.”

Terrible, terribly. Colloquial for *very* or *extremely*.

That, this. Should not be used as an adverb: “I shall go so [not *that* or *this*] far and no farther.”

This here, that there. *Here* and *there* are superfluous and ungrammatical. **These kind, those kind.** See **Kind**.

Too, very. Should not immediately precede a past participle. Supply *much* or some other adverb: “He is very *much* [not *very*] interested.”

Try and. Colloquial for *try to*: “I shall try to (*and* is less desirable) visit you.”

Up. Often used unnecessarily with verbs, especially with *connect*, *divide*, *end*, *finish*, *open*, *rest*, and *settle*.

Very. For the use of *very* with past participles, see **Too**.

Way. Colloquial for *in . . . way*: “Don’t act in *that way* [preferable to *that way*].”

We. Affected or self-conscious substitute for *I*. The first person singular pronoun is not offensive if it is not overused and if nothing boastful is said.

When, where. See rules 12.12 and 12.13.

Which, who, that. *Which* refers to things (but in collective nouns also to persons), *who* to persons, and *that* to either things or persons. As a relative pronoun, *that* is limited to restrictive clauses; but *which* and *who* are used in both restrictive and non-restrictive clauses. The attempt of some authorities to confine the use of *which* and *who* as relative pronouns to non-restrictive clauses is not supported by general usage.

While. See rules 11.14, 11.15, and 11.16.

Whose, of which. *Whose* is permissible as a substitute for *of which* if the latter would be awkward: “This is the house whose foundation [*the foundation of which* would be awkward] will be replaced.” A possessive for *which* is urgently needed.

Without. See rule 11.13.

Would better. *Had better* is the preferred idiom.

Would rather. Both *would rather* and *had rather* are correct.

Write-up. Colloquial for *account*, *description*, *report*.

You was. Illiterate. Employ *you were* for both singular and plural.

✓EXERCISES

- A.** Make a list of specific words included in the meaning of each of the following (see rule 28.3): 1) Verbs—*walk, say, think, work, like, do, affect, blame, move, take, give*. 2) Nouns—*pleasure, sorrow, difficulty, ease, horse, effect, goodness, effort, pity, stream*. 3) Adjectives—*funny, queer, famous, dull, bright, slow, quick, obstinate, proud*. Example: Red—*crimson, scarlet, maroon, henna, russet, garnet, carmine, cerise, flame-colored, wine-colored, rose, pink*.

- B. With the aid of a good dictionary, indicate whether each of the following expressions is colloquial, vulgar, slang, standard (for ordinary prose), poetic, or archaic (see rules 28.4-9 and 28.20): *kid* ["child"], *gent*, *to fire* ["to discharge from a position"], *boat*, *dark* ["a ship"], *to fardo*, *dope* ["information" or "a drug"], *fishy* ["improbable"], *blossom*, *to kick the bucket*, *clime* ["climate"], *to pinch* ["to arrest"], *courser*, *dad*, *dentist*, *impudent*, *cooler* ["a prison"], *mug* ["mouth"], *to bulldoze*, *spud* ["potato"], *nation*, *cop* ["a policeman"], *ain't*, *drag* ["influence securing partiality"], *fardel*, *doughboy* ["a soldier"], *to chin* ["to talk"], *nutty* ["queer"], *sore* ["irritated"], *effigy*, *apple-sauce* ["flattery"], *drama*, *gold-digger* ["mercenary woman"], *chisel* ["to employ shrewd practices"], *sounds*, *surcease*, *to stump* ["to make electioneering speeches"], *marry* [interjection], *noodle* ["head"], *farm bloc*, *to get behind something* ["to support"], *to ditch* ["to throw away"].
- For many of the expressions, you should consult an unabridged dictionary (the 1934 edition of Webster's *New International* is recommended); a book like Krapp's *A Comprehensive Guide to Good English* will also be helpful. If possible, consult several authorities for each word or expression.
- C. Give standard equivalents for the following colloquial, vulgar, or slang expressions (see rules 28.4-8): *nifty*, *flunk*, *a cold snap*, *a big shot*, *they're*, *a drunk*, *to peter out*, *she-bang*, *to get a kick out of something*, *them horses*, *a sissy*, *to kick against something*, *to put something across*, *a pipe course*, *a corker*, *to get by*, *to get left*, *a flop*.
- D. The following adjectives are often misused (see rules 28.3, 28.4, 28.5, 28.7, and 28.8) and are greatly over-used. 1) Write their real meanings (with the aid of a dictionary or rule 28.20); 2) for each, make a list of standard adjectives that express the meaning or meanings often attached to the word incorrectly or loosely: *nice*, *cute*, *grand*, *dumb*, *smart*, *lovely*, *gorgeous*, *glorious*, *elegant*, *terrible*, *awful*, *rotten*, *swell*, *keen*, *dandy*, *slick*.
- E. Make a list of ten current slang expressions not already discussed in rule 28.8 or § F above or listed in Exercises B, C, or D above; and give standard equivalents for them.
- F-H. See Practice Sheets 71 ("Correct and Appropriate Diction" and "Faulty Diction") and 72 ("Faulty Diction").
- J. 1) Make a list of synonyms of each of the following adjectives (see rule 28.3); 2) make a list of specific and concrete details suggested by each adjective (see § C, especially rule 28.14): *cold*, *hot*, *weird*, *cosy*, *foul*, *quiet*, *noisy*, *sweet*, *hard*, *soft*, *gandy*, *bleak*. Example: Cold—1) chill, frigid, frosty, and so forth; 2) snow, ice, numbed fingers, frosted breath, and so forth.
- K. Write a paragraph creating the atmosphere suggested by one of the words in the preceding exercise. Use your list of synonyms and the accompanying list of details. Be specific and concrete, and avoid unpleasant repetition (see rules 25.5, 25.6, and 25.9).
- L. Make a list of the new words that you find in your reading during the next week. Notice the spelling of each word, look up the meaning and the pronunciation in the dictionary, and use the word in an original sentence (see § E above). [By continuing this practice for several years, you can enlarge your vocabulary greatly.]

The heading should be put in the upper right-hand corner of the page. In the "closed" form of punctuation, a period is placed after the last line, and a comma after each of the other lines; and each line should then preferably begin slightly farther to the right than the preceding one:

3217 Thompson Street,
Kansas City, Missouri,
December 15, 1936.

Box 239,
Bunker Hill, Illinois,
March 7, 1937.

R. R. 3,
Treloar, Missouri,
January 11, 1938.

Princeton, Nebraska,
July 28, 1939.

In the "open" form, which is in great favor in business letters at present and is to be preferred in typed letters, the punctuation at the ends of the lines is omitted, though retained within the lines (after an abbreviation, of course, a period is needed even at the end of a line); and all the lines of the heading should preferably begin even:

3217 Thompson Street
Kansas City, Missouri
December 15, 1936

If a printed letterhead containing the full address is used, only the date needs to be added; and this is then often (though not necessarily) centered on the page, provided that the printed address is also centered.

- 30.4 It is not proper to place the sign # before the street number in the heading, to omit the word *Street* or *Avenue*, to add *st*, *d* (*nd*, *rd*), or *th* to the day of the month (following the name of the month), to substitute a numeral for the name of the month, or to clip the first two digits from the year:

Wrong: #3218 Market.

Right: 3218 Market Street.

Wrong: 12/24/36; March 11th, 1937.

Right: December 24, 1936; March 11, 1937.

Though the abbreviation of long names of states and months is permissible, the best current practice is to write them out in full (see rule 22.8), but with *D.C.* and *U.S.A.* the shortened forms are generally the more desirable. The word *Street* or *Avenue* should preferably not be abbreviated, and numerals used as names of streets should be written in words if under a hundred:

Right: 1309 East Sixty-third Street.

Right: 1309 East 115th Street.

C. THE INSIDE ADDRESS

- 30.5 The inside address—the address of the person written to—begins at the left margin about three spaces below the last line of the heading. In a personal letter it is often omitted. Either the “open” or the “closed” style of punctuation may be used (but the inside address and the heading should be uniform in this respect):

Mr. H. W. Kappelman
2622 North Main Street
McAlester, Oklahoma

F. S. Crofts and Company,
41 Union Square, West,
New York, N. Y.

Professor William F. Johnson
St. Lawrence University
Canton, New York

Miss Margaret Carter,
Greenville, Florida.

In addressing an individual, one should use *Mr.* (plural *Messrs.*), *Mrs.* (plural *Mmes.*), *Miss* (plural *Misses*), or (if appropriate) a special title with the name. To put special titles both before and after a name, however, is not in good taste:

Objectionable: Professor Harry F. Clements, Ph.D.

Better: Mr. Harry F. Clements, Ph.D.

Still better: Doctor Harry F. Clements,
Professor of Botany.

Likewise, *Mr.* and *Esq.* should not both be used:

Wrong: Mr. William C. Kruegel, Esq.

Right: Mr. William C. Kruegel.

Right (but uncommon in America): William C. Kruegel, Esq.

- 30.6 Clergymen and important public officials should be addressed with special titles of respect. For the former, the following are customary:

Priest: The Reverend [or, The Reverend Father] Thomas O'Malley.

Protestant clergyman (if not a bishop or an archbishop): The Reverend Charles P. Milne [if the person has a Doctor's degree, "Doctor" may be used].

For the Vice-President of the United States, a United States senator, a congressman, or a state legislator, *The Honorable* [or, *The Hon.*] with the full name is recommended: The Honorable Joseph F. Robinson. For the President of the United States, a cabinet member, a governor, a judge, or a mayor, *The Honorable* may also be used, but the following forms are probably preferable:

President of the United States: The President [without name, but, for definite identification, with *White House* as a part of the address]

Cabinet member: The Secretary of Labor [without name]

Governor: His Excellency, Clarence C. Martin

Judge or mayor: His Honor, William W. Murray

In official business the addition of the position of the addressee or of the body or organization to which he belongs is desirable (if not already given as a substitute for the name):

The Right Reverend Martin Hudson
Bishop of Olympia
Burke Building
Seattle, Washington

The Hon. John Elliott White
House of Representatives
Washington, D. C.

In private business the addressee's specific position or the body or organization with which he is officially connected either may or may not be given.

- 30.7 A married woman is usually addressed by her husband's name preceded by *Mrs.*: Mrs. Henry H. Kent (rather than by her own given name: Mrs. Dorothy Kent). She should not, however, be given his title:

Wrong: Mrs. Doctor Henry H. Kent, Mrs. Doctor Kent.

Right: Mrs. Henry H. Kent, Mrs. Kent.

- 30.8 Names of positions—such as *Professor*, *Treasurer*, *Secretary*, *Manager*, and *Superintendent*—should not be abbreviated. (*Doctor*, *Reverend*, and *Honorable* should preferably not be abbreviated unless the first name or initials are given; the last two, if used with only the surname, should be followed by *Mr.*: *the Reverend Mr. Nelson.*)

D. THE SALUTATION

- 30.9 The salutation is placed about two spaces below the inside address. It begins flush with the left margin and in a business letter is followed by a colon (never a semicolon). The following forms are common in ordinary business correspondence:

Dear Sir: [To one man]

Gentlemen: [To two or more men, or to a firm composed of both men and women]

Dear Madam: [To one woman]

Ladies: [To two or more women]

Mesdames: [To two or more women]

If a somewhat more personal tone is desired—especially if the writer is personally acquainted with the recipient—the addressee's name is used:

Dear Mr. Hollingbery:

Dear Professor Snyder:

For a more ceremonious or formal tone, *My* is added (*dear* then not being capitalized):

My dear Miss Green:

- 30.10 For clergymen and important government officials, the following salutations are proper:

Priest: formal—Reverend and dear Father; informal—Dear Father O'Connor

Protestant clergyman: formal—Sir, Dear [or, My dear] Sir, Reverend and dear Sir; informal—Dear Mr. Milne

President of the United States: Sir, Honorable Sir, Dear Mr. President [without name]

Vice-President of the United States or cabinet member: Sir, Dear Mr. Vice-President, Dear Mr. Secretary [without name]

U.S. senator: formal—Sir, Dear Sir, My dear Senator [without name]; informal—My dear Senator McNary

Congressman: formal—Sir, Dear Sir; informal—Dear Mr. Hill

Governor: formal—Sir, Dear Sir, Your Excellency; informal—My dear Governor Merriam

Judge: formal—Sir, Dear Sir, Your Honor; informal— Dear Judge Parker
Mayor: formal—Sir, Dear Sir, My dear Mr. Mayor [without name]; informal—Dear Mayor Kelly
State legislator: formal—Sir, Dear Sir, My dear Senator [to a senator]; informal—Dear Senator Gannon, Dear Mr. Gannon

- 30.11 In writing to a firm, one sometimes wishes to have the letter read by a particular person; but even if so, the communication should preferably not be addressed to that individual personally, inasmuch as he may be absent when it arrives. A better method is to address the firm in the regular manner and then to add after the salutation, "Attention of ———":

Gentlemen: Attention of Mr. William Foote

The "attention" request may be placed on the same line as the salutation or two spaces below. In either position it should begin at least five spaces to the right of the salutation. In a reply, it is desirable to direct the letter to the attention of the writer of the communication that is being answered.

- 30.12 In a personal letter the salutation is determined by the degree of intimacy between the persons concerned. It normally consists of *Dear* combined with the form of the name that would be used by the writer in addressing the recipient orally. The following forms are common:

Dear Mr. Klee:	My dear President Holland:
Dear Miss Dakin:	Dearest Mother,
Dear Anderson:	Dear Uncle Robert,
Dear Doctor Dirstine:	Dear Grace:

If a personal letter is short or highly informal, a comma, instead of a colon, may be used after the salutation.

E. THE BODY

- 30.13 The body, or message, of a business letter may use either the "indented" or the "block" style. In the former the first sentence is indented about an inch, and the same is true of subsequent paragraphs (if there is more than one paragraph); or, if the salutation is not excessively long, the body may begin directly under the colon. The line-spacing in a typed letter is double between paragraphs, and either single or double (usually the former) within paragraphs. In the block form, the first line of the body and the first line of each subsequent paragraph (if there is more than one

paragraph) begin flush with the left margin. In this form, which is suitable only for typed letters, the line-spacing should be single within paragraphs and double between paragraphs. Though growing in popularity, the block style is not to be recommended, inasmuch as the paragraphing is not so conspicuous and emphatic as in the indented form. The small amount of time saved by the typist is not sufficient justification for the loss in emphasis.

30.14 Paragraph length in a business letter, as elsewhere, depends upon the type of the material (see Appendix IV, Ap. 14), but it averages less than in general writing, inasmuch as many topics of a business communication require only one or two sentences each. Relatively short paragraphs speed up a letter, give it a brisk tone, and hence appeal more to a casual reader than do longer ones. Moreover, by the principle of emphasis by separation (see rule 27.5), a sentence standing alone as a paragraph attracts special attention. If three or more sentences form a unified paragraph, however, the practice of trying to emphasize everything by paragraphing every or nearly every sentence is not to be recommended. Because of failing to group sentences according to topics, that practice is misleading to the reader; and by reducing all to a common level, it results in an actual loss of emphasis. A long letter divided into paragraphs of only one or two sentences each usually makes a bad impression.

30.15 A business letter should be direct and concise. It should come to the point quickly (normally by beginning the main topic in the very first sentence), should omit all unessential words and details, and should stop as soon as the message is presented. Many business letters require only from one to four sentences each, and few need over a page. A letter should not be permitted to extend to more than a page unless such a long discussion is really necessary. If two or more pages are required, the name of the addressee, the date of the letter, and the number of the page should be placed at the top of each sheet after the first.

30.16 In grammar, spelling, and punctuation, standard usage should be observed. This is particularly important in a letter to a stranger, who is likely to judge the intelligence, education, and accuracy of the author chiefly by the manner of the writing. The so-called "telegraphic" style is not proper:

Wrong: Received your letter of March 15.

Right: I received your letter of March 15.

- 30.17 The diction should be simple, accurate, and fresh. Trite expressions like the following should be avoided: *advise* [for *inform* or *let me know*], *along this line*, *and oblige*, *as soon as possible* [indefinite—usually better to substitute an exact date; if the request should be softened, *if possible* can be added], *at the present time* [for *now*], *beg to advise*, *by return mail* [for *immediately*], *contents noted*, *enclosed please find* [for *enclosed is* or *I enclose*], *favor* or *kind favor* [for *letter* or *order*], *in re*, *inst.* [specify the month: *your letter of March 15*], *permit me to state*, *recent date* [use exact date], *said* [for *this*], *same* [for a pronoun], *the writer* [for *I*]. Though the overuse of *I* is in bad taste, the belief of some people that this pronoun should be entirely avoided in a business letter is ill founded. Immodesty consists, not in speaking in the first person, but in saying something in praise of oneself. The participial close is both trite and weak; the phrase should be changed to a sentence or, if unessential, be omitted:

Objectionable: Thanking you in advance for your coöperation, we remain,

Yours truly,

Better: We shall be grateful for your coöperation.

Yours truly,

- 30.18 A business letter should always be courteous. Even if especial firmness is necessary, the language should not be abusive. Obvious insincerity and fawning compliments, however, not only are undignified, but usually defeat their very purpose. An example of unintentional humor is that of an undertaking establishment which, in a New Year's greeting to its patrons and friends, wished them health and happiness.
- 30.19 In a reply the letter that is being answered should normally be specified by date. All the items on which a discussion was requested should be treated.
- 30.20 In personal letters also, the indented form of paragraphing is recommended. The paragraphs perhaps tend to be somewhat longer than in business writing, inasmuch as friends often have occasion to discuss topics in detail. The style of personal letters should be free, easy, and, as a rule, informal, but should not stoop to slang or faulty grammar. Personal letters are likely to treat a greater variety of subjects than are business communications, and are less rigid in organization. Nevertheless, though one often has occasion to open a personal letter with minor matters (such as an acknowledgment of the receipt of a letter with perhaps brief com-

ments on some of the news or with an apology for not replying sooner), the main message should normally be introduced at least near the beginning. Finally, the letter should be adapted to the interests of the addressee and to the amount of information he already has on the subject or subjects discussed.

F. THE COMPLIMENTARY CLOSE

- 30.21 The complimentary close is placed about two spaces below the body and begins a little to the right of the center of the page. Only the first word is capitalized. In ordinary business letters the following forms are the most common:

Yours truly,
Yours very truly,
Very truly yours,

Sincerely yours, *Very sincerely yours*, *Yours most sincerely*, *Cordially yours*, and *Faithfully yours* are sometimes substituted to produce a more personal tone, but they should be employed only if consistent with the salutation and the letter—in general to be used only with *Dear Mr.* [*Mrs.*, *Miss*, or a special title] and the last name. *Sincerely* and *Cordially* (without *yours*) should be restricted to a personal acquaintanceship between the writer and the addressee. *Respectfully yours* and *Very respectfully yours* are appropriate in a letter to a high official in business, government, or other organization. If expressions like *we remain* or *as ever* are used (they are normally not desirable), they should be regarded as the end of the body rather than as a part of the complimentary close:

. . . . we remain,

Yours truly,

- 30.22 In a personal letter the complimentary close, like the salutation, depends upon the relationship between the writer and the recipient, and the two parts should always be consistent in tone. Among the common forms are the following:

Sincerely yours,
Very sincerely,
Sincerely,
Cordially yours,
Cordially,
Faithfully yours,

Respectfully yours,
Respectfully,
Affectionately,
With best wishes,
With love,
Your loving son,

G. THE SIGNATURE

- 30.23 The signature is placed a double space below the complimentary close, with which it is usually set flush at the left. It should always be written in ink; but, because of often being illegible, it should in a typed letter also be typed immediately below the script form. No punctuation is needed after the signature. A woman should always give the full first name (not merely the initial), and a man should preferably do the same. In a business letter, an unmarried woman writes *Miss* in parentheses before her name: (Miss) Jean Fraser. A widow or a married woman uses her own given name in her signature; the former adds *Mrs.* in parentheses before her name, and the latter writes below her name her husband's name preceded by *Mrs.*:

Widow: (Mrs.) Mary Stone

Married woman: Irene Potter

(Mrs. Frank F. Potter)

In a business letter written for an organization—such as a firm, institution, or society—the name of the organization (usually in solid capitals) is put first under the complimentary close, the signature of the writer next, and the typed name of the writer with his position (or department) third:

Very truly yours,

NORTH SHORE CLOTHING COMPANY

Arthur L. Shane

Arthur L. Shane, Manager

- 30.24 If a letter is dictated, the initials of the dictator and those of the stenographer are generally added two spaces below the signature—flush with the left margin:

ALS:MG

- 30.25 In a personal letter an unmarried woman or a widow need not specify *Miss* or *Mrs.* with her signature, and a married woman ordinarily does not have occasion to indicate her husband's name.

H. SAMPLE BUSINESS LETTERS

701 Fourth Avenue, East
Oskaloosa, Iowa
January 7, 1936

Mr. Richard Matson, Secretary
Morningside Chapter of Pi Kappa Delta
1116 South Alice Street
Sioux City, Iowa

Dear Mr. Matson:

The Penn Chapter of Pi Kappa Delta would like to schedule a men's debate with a team from your institution during next March. We suggest that each institution furnish an affirmative and a negative team, and that two contests be held simultaneously -- one at Sioux City and one at Oskaloosa. As for the question, the compulsory arbitration of labor disputes, which I understand you are using for several other debates, will be satisfactory to us.

If you accept, kindly suggest a date for the debate, and send me the exact wording of the question as you are using it for the other contests.

Very truly yours,

PENN CHAPTER OF PI KAPPA DELTA

A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read "Paul McCracken".

Paul McCracken, President

- 30.27 A married woman should be addressed on the envelope (as in the inside address) by her husband's name preceded by *Mrs.*, and a widow by her own name preceded by *Mrs.*
- 30.28 The address should always be complete and legible, and a return address should be placed in the upper left-hand corner of the envelope. Every year about seventeen million pieces of mail, which for various reasons can not be delivered, are sent to the dead-letter and dead-parcel-post offices. On the first of the two sample envelopes above, the indented form with "closed" punctuation is used for the return address, and on the second, the block form with "open" punctuation; on printed envelopes, the successive lines are commonly centered without end punctuation.

K. FORMAL SOCIAL NOTES

- 30.29 Formal notes in the third person have no heading, inside address, salutation, complimentary close, or signature. The sender's address and the date are placed below the message at the left of the page. No abbreviations except *Mr.*, *Messrs.*, *Mrs.*, *Mmes.*, and *Dr.* are permissible, and days and hours (but not house numbers) are spelled out. In an acceptance one should repeat the day and the hour, in order to prevent a misunderstanding. The future tense in expressions like "will be pleased to accept" or "will be unable to accept" is incorrect, inasmuch as the time of accepting or of being unable to accept is the present: "**is** pleased to accept," "**is** unable to accept." Either regular stationery or correspondence cards may be used; unless engraved, formal notes should be in script. Sample notes follow:

Mr. and Mrs. Oswald Jones request the pleasure of Mr. Karl Pfeiffer's company at dinner on Wednesday, March the fourteenth, at seven o'clock.

2117 Laclede Avenue,
March the eighth.

Mr. Karl Pfeiffer accepts with pleasure the kind invitation of Mr. and Mrs. Oswald Jones to dinner on Wednesday, March the fourteenth, at seven o'clock.

1725 West Jefferson Street,
March the ninth.

Mr. Karl Pfeiffer regrets that, because of expecting to be out of the city next week, he is unable to accept the kind invitation of Mr. and Mrs. Oswald Jones to dinner on Wednesday, March the fourteenth, at seven o'clock.

1725 West Jefferson Street,
March the ninth.

Note: In a note of regret the reason and the hour may be omitted.

- 30.30 Organizations frequently send semi-formal invitations, in which the individuals invited are addressed in the second person:

Theta Nu Chapter of Delta Delta Delta Sorority requests the pleasure of your presence at its tenth annual Shakespeare Formal on Friday, April the fourteenth, at eight o'clock.

702 Colorado Street,
April the fifth.

In replying to the semi-formal invitation above, one would refer to himself in the first person and to the organization in the third.

EXERCISES

- A. Write headings for your college and home-town addresses according to both the indented form with "closed" punctuation and the block form with "open" punctuation.
- B. Write the inside address, the salutation, and the complimentary close for a business letter to each of the following: Bower and Bley, located at 610 Austin Avenue, Waco, Texas; Henry S. Cooper, Professor of Physics at Middlebury College, living at 97 Main Street, Middlebury, Vermont; Robert Ringling, living at 1200 Forest Avenue, Evanston, Illinois; Louise Hart (widow of John L. Hart), living at 1131 Cambridge Road, Ann Arbor, Michigan; the President, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pennsylvania; Ida Hunt Jacobs (wife of Howard P. Jacobs), P. O. Box 873, New Brunswick, New Jersey; John Henry Hatcher, judge, Supreme Court of Appeals, Charleston, West Virginia.
- C. Improve the trite expressions of the following letter.

Replying to your kind favor of the 11th inst., wish to say that we would be pleased to furnish you with an Acme filing cabinet at ten per cent discount.

If you desire to purchase same, kindly advise us whether you want Model A or B and we would be pleased to ship immediately.

Thanking you for your interest and trusting that we may be able to serve you, we remain,

Very truly yours,

- D. Rewrite the following letter in such a manner that the reader will receive a more favorable impression of the author's education and general intelligence.

Dear Mr. McElderry Jr.

Received a letter from your Honor this a.m. enclosed was 50¢ in stamps which was the extry charge for the boxing of your typewriter which I repared, and will say that I was mightly glad to have did the job for so worthy a Gentleman as I feel that you are. Am also glad to no that said machine arrived to its distination OK as I had thought it would now thanks a lot.

Yours truly,
William Patton

- E. As manager of the Corner Restaurant, located at 900 Franklin Street, Atlanta, Georgia, you ordered an article (select something worth twenty dollars or more) from George Thompson and Sons, located at 621 South Wabash Street, Chicago, Illinois, but it arrived defective. In a letter, explain the defect clearly and ask for an adjustment. You prefer to deal with Henry G. Thompson, manager of the _____ Department (name the proper department).
- F. Write a letter of application for employment next summer. Address it to a real person or firm, give real persons as references, and, in regard to your training and experience, state only facts. Make sure that the reader will know what basis each reference has for judging your qualifications—that is, what opportunity the reference has had for becoming well acquainted with you.
- G. Write a letter of application for a position that you expect to be qualified for after you finish your college course. Imagine that you are about to be graduated.
- H. Imagining that you are still a senior in high school, write a letter of application for a scholarship at the institution that you are now attending. State that you are applying, and in a few sentences specify your qualifications. Have the letter give the impression that you are deficient in general ability, poorly trained, or careless; for this purpose, insert two or three serious errors in grammar and spelling, and include a point that has no bearing on the matter under discussion. Choose errors frequently made by people lacking in education or intelligence.
- J. Write a letter to a personal friend who is a junior in the high school which you attended, who is interested in specializing in the same course as you are majoring in, and who has asked your advice on whether to do so or not. Tell him or her frankly about such things as the probable advantages and opportunities in the field, the difficulties, the nature of the college work, special factors and aptitudes essential for success, and desirable electives during the remainder of his or her high-school course.
- K. In a letter to your favorite high-school teacher, tell about your college work so far.

- L. In a letter to a member of your family or to a friend, tell about a recent campus event, and let this topic occupy most of the letter. See rule 30.20.
- M. A very dignified great-aunt or great-uncle has sent you a sum of money for a trip that you have long been eager to take. Write (1) a letter thanking the giver, (2) a lively letter to your best friend telling about your plans, and (3) a business letter making some necessary inquiries. Be careful to have the proper tone in each of the letters; in the one to the friend, do not stoop to slang. (If you prefer, you may substitute some other unifying idea that permits three letters differing in tone.)
- N. A friend has sent you a formal announcement of his or her marriage to a person whom you have never met. Write an informal letter of congratulations. Remember that your friend will probably want to show the letter to the bride or the bridegroom.
- O. Write a formal note of invitation. Then, in reply to this, write a note of acceptance and one of regret.
- P. In reply to the semi-formal invitation given under rule 30.30, write a note of acceptance and one of regret.

APPENDIX I

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB

A. CONJUGATION OF To Hide

Principal Parts

Present: *hide* Past: *hid* Past Participle: *hidden*

Note: In the indicative mode, the bold-faced type calls attention to the forms in which the corresponding singular and plural differ; in the subjunctive mode, to the forms in which the subjunctive differs from the corresponding indicative. In present English the second person singular is always the same as the second person plural, although such was not the case originally; for instance, the old forms of the second person singular present were *thou hidest* and *thou art hidden*.

Active Voice

Passive Voice

INDICATIVE MODE

Present Tense

I hide	We hide	I am hidden	We are hidden
You hide	You hide	You are hidden	You are hidden
He hides	They hide	He is hidden	They are hidden

Past Tense

I hid	We hid	I was hidden	We were hidden
You hid	You hid	You were hidden	You were hidden
He hid	They hid	He was hidden	They were hidden

Future Tense

I shall hide	We shall hide	I shall be hidden	We shall be hidden
You will hide	You will hide	You will be hidden	You will be hidden
He will hide	They will hide	He will be hidden	They will be hidden

Present Perfect Tense

I have hidden	We have hidden	I have been hidden	We have been hidden
You have hidden	You have hidden	You have been hidden	You have been hidden
He has hidden	They have hidden	He has been hidden	They have been hidden

Past Perfect Tense

I had hidden	We had hidden	I had been hidden	We had been hidden
You had hidden	You had hidden	You had been hidden	You had been hidden
He had hidden	They had hidden	He had been hidden	They had been hidden

Future Perfect Tense

I shall have hidden	We shall have hidden	I shall have been hidden	We shall have been hidden
You will have hidden	You will have hidden	You will have been hidden	You will have been hidden
He will have hidden	They will have hidden	He will have been hidden	They will have been hidden

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

Present Tense

If I hide	If we hide	If I be hidden	If we be hidden
If you hide	If you hide	If you be hidden	If you be hidden
<i>If he hide</i>	<i>If they hide</i>	<i>If he be hidden</i>	<i>If they be hidden</i>

Past Tense

If I hid	If we hid	If I were hidden	If we were hidden
If you hid	If you hid	If you were hidden	If you were hidden
If he hid	If they hid	If he were hidden	If they were hidden

Present Perfect Tense

If I have hidden	If we have hidden	If I have been hidden	If we have been hidden
If you have hidden	If you have hidden	If you have been hidden	If you have been hidden
If he have hidden	If they have hidden	If he have been hidden	If they have been hidden

Past Perfect Tense

If I had hidden	If we had hidden	If I had been hidden	If we had been hidden
If you had hidden	If you had hidden	If you had been hidden	If you had been hidden
If he had hidden	If they had hidden	If he had been hidden	If they had been hidden

IMPERATIVE MODE

Hide	Hide	Be hidden	Be hidden
------	------	-----------	-----------

VERBALS

Participles

Present: Hiding	Being hidden
Past:	Hidden
Perfect: Having hidden	Having been hidden

Gerunds

Present: Hiding	Being hidden
Perfect: Having hidden	Having been hidden

Infinitives

Present: To hide	To be hidden
Perfect: To have hidden	To have been hidden

B. CONJUGATION OF *To Be**Principal Parts*

Present (infinitive): *be* Past: *was* Past Participle: *been*

Being composed of the roots of several verbs, *to be* is extremely irregular. The following forms are to be found: *be, am, is, are, was, were, been*. For the conjugation of *to be* when used as a main verb, see the passive voice of *to hide*; omit the past participle *hidden* throughout and add *been* as the past participle. Because of being an intransitive verb, *to be* has no passive.

C. PROGRESSIVE AND EMPHATIC CONJUGATIONS

In the active voice, the progressive conjugation is formed by the addition of the present active participle to the conjugation of *to be*, and in the passive by the addition of the past participle to the progressive of *to be*:

Present Tense

I am hiding	We are hiding	I am being hidden	We are being hidden
You are hiding	You are hiding	You are being hidden	You are being hidden
He is hiding	They are hiding	He is being hidden	They are being hidden

The emphatic conjugation appears only in the present and the past tenses of the active voice. It is formed by the addition of the present active infinitive (without *to*) to the present and the past active of *to do*:

Active Voice

INDICATIVE MODE

Present Tense

Past Tense

I do hide	We do hide	I did hide	We did hide
You do hide	You do hide	You did hide	You did hide
He does hide	They do hide	He did hide	They did hide

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

Present Tense

Past Tense

If I do hide	If we do hide	If I did hide	If we did hide
If you do hide	If you do hide	If you did hide	If you did hide
If he do hide	If they do hide	If he did hide	If they did hide

IMPERATIVE MODE

Do hide	Do hide	Do be hidden	Do be hidden
---------	---------	--------------	--------------

APPENDIX II

ROMAN NOTATION

- Ap. 1 In the Roman system of notation, 1 is represented by I, 5 by V, 10 by X, 50 by L, 100 by C, 500 by D, and 1000 by M. The following numbers are expressed by subtraction, a smaller number being placed before a larger one: 4 as IV (1 from 5), 9 as IX (1 from 10), 40 as XL (10 from 50), 90 as XC (10 from 100), 400 as CD (100 from 500), and 900 as CM (100 from 1000). The other numbers under 1000 are represented through the addition of *I*'s, *V*'s, *X*'s, and so forth at the right (not more than three of any one character): for instance, 2 as II, 3 as III, 6 as VI, 15 as XV, 19 as XIX, 34 as XXXIV, 41 as XLI, 97 as XCVII, and 262 as CCLXII. In certain situations (for instance, for scenes of a play and for pages of the preface of a book), small letters rather than capitals are generally used for the Roman notation.

APPENDIX III

SUPPLEMENT TO CHAPTER 22, § J ("THE
INVESTIGATIVE PAPER")

- Ap. 2 *Notes to rule 22.51:* A card bibliography is frequently called "bibliography cards" or "index cards."—Notice that index cards use the outline form; that is, each major item and each related group of minor items begins a new line.—The subtopic, if put upon a bibliography card, should be centered, so that it will not be confused with the title of the book or article.—The main reason for the inclusion of the date in the bibliographical items is that the time of publication frequently has a vital bearing upon the value of the material. A record of the city of publication is likewise desirable, inasmuch as the place (for instance, its nationality) sometimes influences the point of view of the writer. Moreover, the date and the place of publication may help to identify a certain edition definitely. In an informal footnote, the place and the date of publication (especially the former) may be omitted.—The addition of the name of the publisher is useful if the investigator may later wish to purchase the book or if he wants to have this information as a check on the reliability of the content.—If desired, the call number of a book, according to the card catalog of your library, can be written in the vacant space in the lower part of the index card for the respective title.
- Ap. 3 *Note to page 138, Fig. 1:* For an encyclopedia or other common reference work, the following form of bibliography card is recommended:

Encyclopaedia Britannica.
"Forests and Forestry."
14th ed. London and New York, 1929.
IX, 497-507,

- Ap. 4 *Note to page 139, below Fig. 2:* Bibliography cards should be arranged alphabetically according to the last names of the authors. Cards marked *Anon.* can be inserted under *A*; but, if they represent articles in reference works, magazines, and newspapers, they should preferably be placed according to the titles of the works in which the articles appear.
- Ap. 5 *Note to rule 22.59:* How much of the text each footnote applies to should be clear to the reader. The end of the passage covered is normally obvious from the position of the numeral for the footnote; but the beginning, if this does not coincide with the beginning of the paragraph in which the numeral for the footnote is to be found, often requires special attention. If the passage to which the citation applies commences after the beginning of the paragraph containing the footnote and if this fact would not be clear from something in the text—such as quotation marks, the blocking of a quotation, or a verb of saying—the footnote itself should specify how much of the text is to be included. If a reference covers more than one paragraph and this fact would otherwise not be clear, a footnote should be given for each paragraph, or one general footnote with a statement of the amount of the text covered should be given.—In making a first draft of a composition with footnotes, many writers like to insert each footnote immediately after the point of the text to which it belongs. At the end of the line containing the point at which the footnote is attached, they draw a line across the page; then they write the footnote and, after drawing another line, continue with the regular text. In a final draft, however, footnotes should always be placed at the bottom of the page.
- Ap. 6 *Notes to rule 22.60:* Observe that there is no comma immediately before the mark of parenthesis preceding the place and the date of publication; that is, these data are to be regarded as parenthetical to the item just before.—For a footnote referring to a piece of writing published in a book or set consisting of a collection of unconnected material, the word *in* with the name of the book or set is recommended.⁸ For a citation to a book or pam-
- ⁸ Agnes Repplier, "The Mission of Humour," in Americans and others (Boston and New York, 1912), pp. 29-30. Extracts from The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, in Readings in English History, 2d ed., ed. Edward P. Cheyney (Boston, 1922), p. 83.

phlet belonging to a series, the name of the series (preferably in quotation marks and with *in* preceding) and, if numbered, the number of the issue should be included.⁹ For a footnote referring to a publication issued by an institution, a bureau, or other organization as a numbered bulletin or the like, a somewhat similar form is desirable.¹⁰

- Ap. 7 *Note to rule 22.61*: Observe that there is no comma immediately before the mark of parenthesis preceding the year of the volume of the magazine; that is, the year is to be regarded as parenthetical to the volume number.
- Ap. 8 *Note to rules 22.60 and 22.61*: The following will serve as a guide in the making of footnotes for the first citation of most books and magazine articles (as discussed in rules 22.60 and 22.61) (the nearly vertical lines, which are here used to separate the various items, are to be omitted):

Books: Name of author (last name last) (if author is unknown, omit or replace by *Anon.*)/ title of book underscored [preceded by comma]/ number of edition if there has been more than one edition [preceded by comma]/ editor if other than the original author [preceded by comma]/ city and year of publication (preferably in parentheses) [if city and year are in parentheses, no comma immediately preceding the opening mark of parenthesis]/ volume number if more than one (preferably in Roman notation, for which see Appendix II) [preceded by comma]/ page number or numbers in arabic [preceded by comma and followed by period].

Magazine articles: Name of author (last name last) (if author is unknown, omit or replace by *Anon.*)/ title of article in quotation marks [preceded by comma]/ title of magazine underscored [preceded by comma]/ volume number in Roman [preceded by comma]/ year in parentheses [*not* preceded by comma]/ date of the issue if magazine does not number the pages continuously throughout the volume [preceded by comma]/ page number or numbers in arabic [preceded by comma and followed by period].

⁹Murray W. Bundy, The Theory of Imagination in Classical and Mediaeval Thought, in "University of Illinois Studies in Language and Literature," Vol. XI, Nos. 2-3 (Urbana, Illinois, 1926), p. 113. [Some writers and publishers use italics instead of quotation marks for the name of the series.]

¹⁰Carleton R. Ball and Stephen H. Hastings, Grain-Sorghum Production in the San Antonio Region of Texas, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Plant Industry, Bulletin No. 237 (1912), pp. 65-68.

—The actual footnotes to be found in *A Writer's Manual and Workbook* will serve as additional illustrations of the form and purpose of footnotes. See especially pages xviii, 28, 49, 60, 141, 145, 167, 169-70, 174-76, 201, and 232.¹

- Ap. 9 *Notes to rule 22.65*: Each line of a bibliographical entry except the last should be filled solid.—For bibliographical entries in the special situations discussed under Ap. 6 in connection with footnotes, the following forms are recommended (notice the alphabetical order):

Anon. The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. In Readings in English History, 2d ed. Ed. Edward P. Cheyney. Boston, 1922, pp. 83-84.

Ball, Carleton R., and Hastings, Stephen H. Grain-Sorghum Production in the San Antonio Region of Texas. U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Plant Industry, Bulletin No. 237 (1912).

Bundy, Murray W. The Theory of Imagination in Classical and Mediaeval Thought. In "University of Illinois Studies in Language and Literature," Vol. XI,

Nos. 2-3. Urbana, Illinois, 1926. [Some writers and publishers use italics instead of quotation marks for the name of the series.]

Repplier, Agnes. "The Mission of Humour." In Americans and Others. Boston and New York, 1912, pp. 29-57.

- Ap. 10 *Additional note to rule 22.65*: The following will serve as a guide in the making of bibliographical entries (as discussed in rule 22.65) (the nearly vertical lines are to be omitted):

Books: Name of author (last name first) (if author is unknown, substitute *Anon.*) [followed by a period]/ Title of the book or set underscored [period]/ Number of the edition if more than one edition [period]/ Editor if other than the original author [period]/ Number of volumes if more than one [period]/ City of publication [comma] year [period].
 Magazine articles: Name of author (last name first) (if author is unknown, substitute the title of the magazine) [period]/ Title of the article in quotation marks [period]/ Title of the magazine underscored (not repeated here if already given in place of the author's name) [comma] volume number in Roman [*no* comma] year of the volume in parentheses [comma] date of the issue if the magazine does not number the pages continuously throughout the volume [comma] page numbers of the article in arabic [period].

¹ In the event of a special problem not covered in the treatment of footnotes in this book, the student should consult a good manual of style, such as the University of Chicago Press *Manual of Style*, 9th ed. (Chicago, 1927), pp. 128-34.

- Ap. 11 *General note:* The system of documentation presented in Chapter 22, § J, though not the only one in use, is based upon the most common practice among writers, editors, and publishers. Most other systems differ in only minor respects. Accordingly, a person who understands the present system can adapt it rather easily if he should have occasion to prepare copy for a magazine requiring another system. The beginner, however, is advised to follow this system exactly. It is applicable to all fields of scholarship, although journals in biology and geology tend to omit italicization (underscoring in typewriting and script) of book titles in order to avoid confusion with the italic portions of the scientific names of specimens. (Italicization of book titles is omitted by some publishers in very long bibliographical lists in order to avoid too much italic type, but the student's bibliography will rarely be large enough to justify that form.)

ADDITIONAL EXERCISES TO CHAPTER 22, § J

Exercise L: Card Bibliography. Make a bibliography card for each of the works below. Add capitalization, italics, and quotation marks in accordance with rules 22.3 (m), 22.21, and 21.49. Arrange the cards alphabetically.

1. A book with the following title page: Coaching/ by/ Knute K. Rockne/ Author of "The Four Winners"/ New York/ The Devin-Adair Company. [The date of printing is not indicated on the title page, but the copyright is given as 1925; nearly vertical lines are here used to indicate the line division on the title page.]
2. A two-volume work with the following material on the title page of the first volume: The Life of David Belasco/ by/ William Winter/ (1836-1917)/ "He, being dead, yet speaketh."/ Volume One/ New York/ Moffat, Yard and Company/ 1918/ [The second volume has the same date.]
3. A book with the following title page: A Short History/ of the/ English People/ by/ John Richard Green/ Honorary Fellow of Jesus College, Oxford/ With maps and tables/ New Edition, thoroughly revised/ New York/ Harper & Brothers, Franklin Square/ 1893.
4. A book with the following title page: Manual of the Practice/ of/ Veterinary Medicine/ for Practitioners and Students/ by/ Edward Courtenay, M.R.C.S./ Third Edition/ Revised

by Frederick T. G. Hobday, F.R.C.V.S., F.R.S.E./ Honorary Veterinary Surgeon to His Majesty the King; Fellow of the Royal Society of Medicine; . . ./ . . ./ . . ./ and formerly Professor in the Royal Veterinary College, London/ Chicago/ Chicago Medical Book Company/ 1913.

5. Article: Age and human ability. Author: Walter R. Miles. Magazine: Psychological review. Volume number: 40. Pages: 99 to 123. Date: March, 1933. [A bi-monthly magazine numbering the pages continuously throughout the volume.]
6. Article: Rise and fall of a mushroom gold camp. Author: T. M. Proske. Magazine: Mining review. Volume number: 35. Pages: 10-11. Date: August 1, 1933. [A weekly magazine numbering the pages independently for each issue.]
7. Unsigned article: How to pay salespeople. Magazine: Drug bulletin. Volume number: 51. Pages: 23-24. Date: August, 1933. [A monthly magazine numbering the pages independently for each issue.]
8. Headline of newspaper story: Japan proposes navy agreement on own terms. Paper: Chicago tribune. Date: December 1, 1934. Page: 3. Column: 1.

Exercise M: Footnotes. Imagining that you are writing a composition in which you use material from the eight works given in Exercise L, make a footnote for the first citation of each work. In the first item refer to pages 53-57, in the second to pages 100-10 of the second volume, in the third to pages 77-82, in the fourth to pages 125-30, in the fifth to page 119, in the sixth to page 11, in the seventh to pages 23-24, and in the eighth to page 3. See rules 22.60 and 22.61. Add capitalization, italicization, and quotation marks in accordance with rules 22.3 (m), 22.21, and 21.49; and be careful to use the proper punctuation, paragraphing, and abbreviations. Write the eight footnotes on one sheet of paper.

Exercise N.: Footnotes. Imagining that you are writing a composition in which you have several citations to some of the works given in Exercise L, make footnotes covering the following situations (see rule 22.62):

9. Assume that you have in immediate succession two citations to the first work given in Exercise L (Rockne's book), both being to pages 53-57. Write the second footnote.
10. Assume that you have in immediate succession two citations to the fourth work given in Exercise L (Courtenay's book),

the first being to pages 125-30 and the second to page 51. Write the second footnote.

11. Assume that you have two citations to the fifth work given in Exercise L (Miles's article), the first being to page 119 and the second to pages 122-23; they are not in immediate succession. Write the second footnote.

Exercise O: Footnotes. Assuming that the authors' names have been mentioned in the text, write footnotes for items 1 and 5 in Exercise L (see rule 22.63); in Rockne's book cite pages 131-34, and in Miles's article page 107. Assuming that the name of the author and the title of the article have been mentioned in the text, write a footnote referring to the two pages of Proske's article (item 6 in Exercise L).

Exercise P: Bibliography (List of Works Consulted). Assume that, in writing a composition, you have consulted the eight works given in Exercise L. Write the eight bibliographical entries on a sheet of paper according to rule 22.65. Remember that the order should be alphabetical.

APPENDIX IV

THE PARAGRAPH

- Ap. 12 **A primary requirement of a good paragraph is unity.** Only relevant ideas should be included, and all material not properly related to the rest of the paragraph should be omitted. An expository or an argumentative paragraph should be a block or unit of thought, which is generally expressed in a nutshell in a sentence called the "topic statement." A narrative paragraph normally represents a certain stage of the action.
- Ap. 13 **The paragraph should have coherence.** The thought should progress clearly and smoothly from sentence to sentence, and the general effect should be a constant forward movement. Each sentence should ordinarily be next to the sentence to which it is most closely related; but sometimes a topic statement (see rule Ap. 12), which most frequently stands at or near the beginning of the paragraph, can be effectively repeated at the end for clearness or emphasis. If the relation of a sentence to the preceding sentence or passage would otherwise not be clear, a transitional expression (see rule 5.5) should be inserted. This method of achieving coherence, however, should not be used too often. Notice that neither this

paragraph nor the preceding one needs transitional expressions, but that the following one contains two.

- Ap. 14 **Choppy paragraphs should be avoided.** Except in the situations mentioned below under rule Ap. 15, paragraphs should normally average between seventy-five and three hundred words each, the general average being perhaps about a hundred and fifty. In a complicated subject, they tend to be somewhat longer than in a less difficult one. The length of an individual paragraph, to be sure, is determined to a great extent by the amount of material that belongs to it; considerations of clearness, completeness, unity, and coherence require that all essential matter be included, and no more. Nevertheless, in actual practice sufficient manipulation to make the average length of paragraphs about as desired is ordinarily possible. Often choppy paragraphs can be combined without any change in wording; but sometimes a slight rephrasing is essential, and sometimes a complete rewriting is necessary.

- Ap. 15 **In certain situations, short paragraphs are proper :**

- a) A single sentence serving as an outline, a conclusion, or a transition for a group of paragraphs may stand as a separate paragraph.
- b) In dialogue each speech (with any narrative closely related), even if it consists of only one word, begins a new paragraph; for an illustrative passage, see rule 21.46. (If a speech is too long for one paragraph, it is divided into two or more.)
- c) Vivid, fast-moving narrative often employs short paragraphs.
- d) In newspaper accounts, which are chiefly narrative, the paragraphs are likely to be shorter than in general writing. In fact, the first paragraph (the so-called "lead"), which is a kind of outline giving the gist of the story, normally consists of only one paragraph.
- e) In letters, especially in business letters, one often has occasion to write paragraphs of only one or two sentences.

APPENDIX V

SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES

Note to page 11, §B: An adjective prepositional phrase immediately follows the word or words modified, but an adverbial prepositional phrase modifying a verb is frequently separated from the verb:

Adjective phrase: The captain of the company was killed.

Adverbial phrase (next to the verb modified): The captain died **in the morning**.

Adverbial phrase (separated from the verb modified): **In the morning** the captain died.

Accordingly, if a prepositional phrase is at the very beginning of a sentence, it must be adverbial, inasmuch as an adjective phrase would have to be preceded by the word or words modified.

Ap. 16 *Second note to page 11, §B: An adverbial prepositional phrase should not be made to modify a noun or a pronoun:*

Wrong: At the age of seven, **my** father died.

Right: When **I** was seven years old, my father died.

Right: At the age of seven, **I** lost my father [the phrase modifies *lost*].

Note to pages 12-13, §E: Under rule 3.1 (page 12), it was pointed out that *due to* is nearly always incorrect at the very beginning of a sentence; the reason is that, if used to modify a noun, *due* follows the noun, and, if used as a subjective complement, it normally follows the verb. This principle can be used as a practical test for deciding between *because of* (or *on account of*) and *due to*, even when the element in question is not at the beginning of a sentence: if the element with *because of* or *due to* can be moved to the beginning of the sentence, it is adverbial and, consequently, requires *because of* (or *on account of*). Thus the following is adverbial:

Not initial: I am late **because of** an accident on the way.

Initial: **Because of** an accident on the way, I am late.

In the two examples below (quoted from the top of page 13), *due to* is required, for the word groups in question could not be moved to the beginning of the sentence without changing the words or the meaning:

His absence was **due to** his father's illness.

The distress **due to** unemployment was relieved by various charitable organizations.

Ap. 17 *Note to page 20, end of §C: Two or more unrelated ideas should not be written together as a compound sentence:*

Lacking in unity: Swat all flies, and report leaky faucets.

Improved: Swat all flies. Also report leaky faucets.

Note to page 20, rule 5.5: *Yet* in the sense of *but* is sometimes treated as a regular coordinating conjunction by standard writers—that is, only a comma is placed before it. *So* with the meaning of *therefore* is punctuated similarly by some persons, but that practice is not desirable in formal writing (see also page 184 under *so*, items 3 and 4).

Note to page 21, rule 5.6: It is recommended that commas be placed after transitional phrases standing at the beginning of sentences and independent clauses (such expressions being parenthetical elements):

On the other hand, the United States is a wealthy nation.

Except in the three situations mentioned a few lines below in the sentence beginning "After simple adverbs," commas should preferably be placed also after transitional adverbs (single words) in the same position:

Accordingly, I suggest that

Finally, I shall show that

After (1) simple adverbs of time which begin sentences or clauses and which modify the verbs directly (such as *then* and *finally* when expressing time, *soon*, *immediately*, *later*), no punctuation should be used, for such words are restrictive (*restrictive* is explained in rules 10.1, 10.2, 10.3, and 11.5); and after (2) *therefore* and (3) one-syllable transitional words (*hence*, *so* [with the meaning of *therefore*], *thus*, *still*, *yet*), the omission of the comma is also generally desirable, for in speaking there would normally be no pause:

(1) Finally we decided to give up the search.

(2) The day was very cold; therefore the crowd at the football game was small.

(3) The sky was cloudy; hence we did not have a good view of the opposite side of the canyon.

But a one-syllable ordinal (such as *first*, *third*, *fourth*) when used separately as a transitional word (in the enumeration of a point or the like) should be followed by a comma (as would *second*, *thirdly*, *fourthly*, and other ordinals of more than one syllable):

First, war is brutalizing.

If in doubt about whether to use a comma after a transitional word, one is likely to be safe in omitting the punctuation, inasmuch as some authorities and professional writers punctuate sparingly after such elements.

Ap. 18 *Second note to page 21, rule 5.6:* **Conjunctions** (defined in Chapter 5, §C, and Chapter 11, §B) **should not be followed by commas** (unless the commas are needed to set off inserted elements):

Wrong: Many people find it easy to learn to swim, but, I do not seem to be making any progress.

Right: Many people find it easy to learn to swim, but I do not seem to be making any progress.

INDEX

Note. Numbers refer to pages in *A Writer's Manual*. Italicized numerals indicate definitions or main discussions. For numbers of rules, see the correction chart in the front of the book.

- A*, *an* 177.
A, words with tricky *a* (spelling), 196.
A-, spelling with the prefix *a-*, 193.
 Abbreviations, 115, 127-28: in footnotes, 144; in letters, 210, 212.
 Absolute, nominative, *see* Nominative.
 Abstract noun, 2; *see also* Noun.
Accept, *except*, 178, 198.
 Acknowledgment of indebtedness, 136.
 Active, *see* Voice.
Ad, 178.
Ad-, spelling with the prefix *ad-*, 192.
 Address, *see* Nominative of.
 Addresses, punctuation in, 118.
 Adjective, 6-9, 58, 112, 148, 159: comparison of, 6-8; consecutive adjectives, 117-18; diagramming of, 8-9; objective complement, 41 (diagramming of, 44); predicate adjective, 6, 39 (diagramming of, 9, 42-43); punctuation of non-restrictive adjective, 55; as substantive, 38, 80, 111.
 Adjective clause, 52-61, 112, 147, 160: diagramming of, 58-61; position of, 79; punctuation of, 53-55, 117.
 Adjective modifiers: review of, 58, 112; *see also* Adjective, Adjective clause, Adjective noun, Adjective phrase, Appositive, Infinitive, Participle, Pronoun.
 Adjective noun, 49, 58, 112: diagramming of, 50-51.
 Adjective phrase, 11, 58, 112: diagramming of, 13-15.
 Adverb, 6-9, 80, 112, 155: diagramming of, 8-9; comparison of, 6-8; relative, 53 (diagramming of, 60), 82-83, 112.
 Adverbial clause, 61-70, 80, 112: diagramming of, 68-70; in initial position, 155; punctuation of, 63-65, 116-17.
 Adverbial modifiers: review of, 80, 112; *see also* Adverb, Adverbial clause, Adverbial noun, Adverbial phrase, Infinitive.
 Adverbial noun, 48, 80, 112: diagramming of, 50-51.
 Adverbial phrase, 11, 80, 112, 116-17: diagramming of, 13-15.
Advise, 178, 215.
Affect, *effect*, 178, 198.
 Affectation, 162.
Aggravate, 178.
 Agreement: pronoun with antecedent, 32; verb with subject, 33-36, 39; diagramming to test agreement, 36-37.
Ain't, 178.
All-around, *all-round*, 178.
All right, spelling of, 132, 178, 199.
All the farther, *faster*, *later*, 178.
Allusion, *illusion*, 178, 198.
Already, *all ready*, 178.
Altar, *alter*, spelling of, 198, 200.
Altogether, *all together*, 178.
 American preferences in spelling, 207.
Amount, spelling of, 193.
And, 4, 20, 34, 127; *and etc.*, 178; *and who*, 160.
Anon., 137, 230.
 Antecedent, 2, 32, 157-59: agreement of pronoun with, 32; case of relative pronoun, 57.
Anybody, *anyone*, 32, 132.
Any place, *anywhere*, 178.
Anywheres, 178.
 Apostrophe, 31, 46-48, 133-34.
 Application, sample letter of, 219-20.
 Appositive, 41-42, 58, 80, 81, 111, 112, 117, 120, 147: case of, 49; as fragment, 56, 113; diagramming of, 44; gerund as, 98; infinitive as, 102; noun clause as, 71; punctuation of, 55-57.
 Appropriate diction, 169-72.
Apt, *liable*, *likely*, 178.
 Archaism, 170.
 Argument, 173, 235.
 Articles, 6, 126, 130.
 Artificiality, 162, 165.
As, 65, 66, 178.
As . . . as, 62, 66, 67.
As if, 65: subjunctive after, 90.
Aspect, misuse of, 167.
As though, subjunctive after, 90.
As well as, 34.
Athletics, 36.
Attention of ———, 213.
Auto, 179.
 Auxiliary verb, 3, 16, 26, 33, 89, 107.
Awful, *awfully*, 179.
 Awkwardness, 32, 47, 87, 103, 157.

- Back of, in back of*, 179.
 Bacon, quoted, 135, 159.
Badly, with feel, 179.
Balance, 162, 179.
Be, 3, 33, 89, 93; conjugation of, 171.
Bear, 108.
Because clause, 73.
Beside, besides, 179.
Between, among, 179.
 Bible, quoted, 48, 51, 64, 84, 111, 155, 162.
 Bible reference, indication of, 120.
 Bibliography, 128, 137-41, 145-47, 229-32; card bibliography, 137-39, 229-30.
Bid, 108.
 Biology, documentation in, 233.
 Block paragraphing, 213-14.
 Body of a letter, 213-16.
 Book titles in italics, 130.
Born, borne, 108, 198.
 Brackets, 122-23.
Brainy, 179.
Britain, spelling of, 200.
Britannica, Encyclopaedia, 140.
Broadcast, 108.
 Bryan, W. J., quoted, 166.
 Bulletin, documentation for, 231-32.
 Burke, quoted, 164.
Burst, bust, busted, bursted, 108, 179.
 Business letters, 128, 208-21.
But, 4, 20, 151; *but who*, 160.
Cambridge History of English Literature, 140.
 Cancellation, 122; *see also* Deletion, 134.
Can, may, 179.
Can not help but, 179.
 Capitals, 2, 4, 125-27, 128, 129.
Captain, spelling of, 200.
 Card bibliography, 137-39.
 Card catalog, 139-40.
 Carlyle, Thomas, quoted, 174-75.
Case, 46-51, 67; diagramming to test, 51, 76-78; pronoun in noun clause, 73; pronoun after *to be* in objective-infinitive construction, 102; subject of gerund, 98-99; subject of objective-infinitive construction, 102.
Case, misuse of, 167.
 Catalog, card, 139-40.
 Cause, 61, 62, 66, 73, 112.
-ceed, -cede, spelling of, 195.
Censor, censure, 179.
Certain, spelling of, 200.
Cf., 127, 130.
 Chapters of a book, quotation marks around, 124.
Character, misuse of, 167.
 Choppy paragraphs, 236.
 Choppy sentences, 150, 152, 162.
Claim, 179.
 Clause, 19; parenthetical, 22, 57-58; review of diagramming of, 83-84; summary of, 80-81; summary of punctuation of, 81-83; *see also* Independent, Dependent, Adjective, Adverbial, Noun.
 Clearness, comma for, 118.
 Clergymen: inside address for, 211; salutation for, 212.
 Climax, emphasis by, 165.
 "Closed" punctuation, 209, 210, 220.
 Coherence: in sentence, 78-80, 163-64; in paragraph, 235.
 Coleridge, quoted, 155.
 Collective noun, 2; number of verb with, 35; *see also* Noun.
College Standard Dictionary, 169.
Collegiate Dictionary (Webster's), 169.
 Colloquialism, 169.
 Colon, 56-57, 72, 100, 120.
 Comma, 4, 13, 20-23, 42, 54-57, 63-65, 71-72, 81-83, 94-95, 100, 103, 116-19, 121, 124.
 Comma splice, 21-23, 82, 116, 150.
 Command: subjunctive after verb of, 89; *see also* Imperative.
 Common noun, 2; *see also* Noun.
 Comparative degree, 7-8, 67.
Compare, 127.
 Comparison, 6-8, 66-68.
Completed, 179.
 Complement, *see* Subjective or Objective.
 Completeness, *see* Fragmentary sentence.
 Complex, *see* Sentence.
 Complimentary close, 216.
 Compound-complex sentence, 74, 81; diagramming of, 76.
 Compound, *see* Predicate, Sentence, Subject, Substantive construction.
 Compound words, 47-48, 130-32.
Comprehensive Guide to Good English, 1 (Krapp), 170.
Con-, spelling with the prefix *con-*, 192.
 Concession clauses, 61, 62, 64, 66, 90, 112.
 Conciseness in letters, 214.
 Concrete noun, 2.
 Concrete word, 172-73.
Condition, misuse of, 167.
 Conditions, 61, 62, 63, 89-90, 112.
 Confirmatory figures, 122, 129.
 Conjugation: of *be*, 227; emphatic, 228; of *hide*, 225-27; progressive, 93, 102, 227.
 Conjunctive adverb, *see* Relative or Transitional.
 Conjunction, 3, 112, 126; coordinating, 19-20, 21, 22, 23, 116, 119; subordinating, 62-63, 71, 82, 92, 148; errors in, 65-67, 73-74.

- Connective, *see* Conjunction, Preposition, Relative adverb, Relative pronoun.
- Connotation, 173.
- Conscience, spelling of, 200.
- Consecutive adjectives, 117-18.
- Consonant suffix, addition of, 191.
- Continual, continuous*, 179.
- Contraction, 46, 133, 169.
- Contrast, 61, 62, 64, 65, 112.
- Coördinating conjunction, *see* Conjunction.
- Copulative verb, 6.
- Correlatives, 161.
- Correspondence, 208-24.
- Crabbe's *Synonymes*, 169, 176.
- Cute*, 179.
- Dangling: elliptical clause, 149; gerund phrase, 99; infinitive, 103; participle, 95.
- Dash, 56-57, 72, 100, 120-21.
- Data*, 36.
- Date*, 179.
- Dates, 127, 128-29; comma in, 118.
- De-*, spelling with the prefix *de-*, 193, 194.
- De Buffon, quoted, 163.
- Declarative sentence, 1, 4, 12, 15, 115.
- Degree, 6, 80, 112; clause of, 61, 62-64; *see also* Comparison.
- Degree*, misusc of, 167.
- Delayed subject, 11-12, 70, 75, 102, 105.
- Deletion, 122, 134.
- Demonstrative pronoun, 2.
- Denotation, 173.
- Dependent clause, 52, 79, 80-81, 82, 83, 149; as fragment, 83, 113-14; *see also* Adjective, Adverbial, Noun clause.
- Diagramming: adjective, 8-9; adjective clause, 58-61; adjective noun, 50-51; adjective phrase, 13-15; adverb, 8-9; adverbial clause, 68-70; adverbial noun, 50-51; adverbial phrase, 13-15; agreement (to test a.), 36-37; appositive, 44; case (to test c.), 51; case of a pronoun introducing a noun clause (to test c.), 76-78; completeness (to test c.), 18; complex sentence, *see* Adjective, Adverbial, Noun clause; compound element, 5, 9, 13, 36, 37, 42-43, 44; compound sentence, 23-24; compound-complex sentence, 76; delayed subject, 75, 105; direct object, 43; expletive, 14-15; gerund, 100-01; indirect object, 43-44; infinitive, 104-06; nominative of address, 44-45; noun clause, 74-78; object of a preposition, 13-14; objective complement, 44; objective-infinitive construction, 105; participle, 95-97; predicate (verb of), 4-5; predicate adjective, 9, 42-43; predicate noun, pronoun, substantive, *see* Subjective complement; prepositional phrase, 13-15; relative adverb in adjective clause, 60; relative pronoun, 58-59; review, general, 114; review of clauses, 83-84; review of first eight chapters, 51-52; subject, 4-5; subjective complement, 9, 42-43 (after a passive verb, 87-88); substantive constructions, 42-45; verb, 4-5.
- Dialogue, 123, 236.
- Diction, 166-86.
- Dictionary of Modern English Usage*, A, (Fowler), 177.
- Different than*, 8, 172, 178.
- Direct address, object, quotation: *see* Nominative (of address), Object (direct), Quotation (direct).
- Directness in letters, 214.
- Dis-*, spelling with the prefix *dis-*, 192, 193.
- Dive*, 109.
- Do*, 109, 172.
- Documentation, 142-47.
- Don't* with singular, 34.
- Doubt but that, but what, whether, if*, 180.
- Doubt (question mark), 116.
- Dove*, 109, 180.
- Drink*, 109.
- Due to*, 12-13.
- Dumb, stupid*, 180.
- E*, words with tricky *e* (spelling), 197.
- E-*, spelling with the prefix *e-*, 193.
- Each*, 2, 32, 159.
- Each, other, one another*, 180.
- Economy, 147-49, 166.
- Editorial insertion, 122, 135.
- Effect, affect*, 178, 198.
- E.g.*, 57, 127, 130.
- Ei* and *ie*, spelling with, 194-95.
- Elliptical: clauses, 66-67, 148-49; sentences, 17-18.
- Else (anyone's else, etc.)*, 180.
- Embarrass*, spelling of, 200.
- Emphasis, 12, 86-87, 94, 130, 155, 157, 161-66; importance of, 149, 161; by subordination, 149-52, 161; in diction, 175; *see also* Economy, Variety.
- Emphatic conjugation, 172.
- Encyclopaedia, bibliography card for, 229.
- Encyclopaedia Britannica*, 140.
- Endorsing, 136.
- Enthuse*, 180.
- Envelopes for letters, 208.
- Essays, quotation marks around titles of, 124.
- Etc.*, 115, 127, 130, 180.

- Every*, 32; *everybody*, 2, 32, 159; *everyone*, 32, 132; *everything*, 32.
Every place, everywhere, 180.
 Exact word, 166-67, 215.
 Exam, 180.
 Examples in writing, 173.
Except, except, 180, 198.
 Exclamation, 18: noun as, 38, 111.
 Exclamation point, 4, 116, 121, 122, 124.
 Exclamatory sentence, 1, 15: punctuation of, 4, 116; word order in, 11-12.
 Exercises: documentation, 146-47, 233-35; diction, 185-86; spelling, 189, 190, 191; correspondence, 222-24. *See also* the *Warkbaak*.
Expect, 180.
 Expletive, 12, 148: diagramming of, 14-15.
 Exposition, 173, 235.
Factar, misuse of, 167.
Farther, further, 180.
 Feminine pronoun, 32.
Field, misuse of, 167.
 Figure of speech, 174-75.
 Figure out of context, 31, 134.
Fine, 180.
 "Fine writing," 170.
 Finite form of verb, 15-17, 112.
Fix, 180.
 Flowery writing, *see* "Fine writing," 170.
 Folding: letters, 208; themes, 136.
 Footnotes, 128, 142-45, 230-32.
For, 10, 20, 151.
 Foreign: expressions, 130: nouns, number of, 31, 189.
For example, 57, 127.
Far instance, 57.
 Formal diction, 169.
 Formal social notes, 221-22.
 Fowler, H. W., and Fowler, F. G., *A Dictionary of Modern English Usage*, 177.
 Fragmentary sentence, 15-18, 56, 83, 113, 115; diagramming to test completeness, 18; review of fragmentary sentence, 113-14.
 Fresh diction, 171, 215.
-ful, spelling of the suffix *-ful*, 191.
 Funk and Wagnalls' dictionaries, 169.
Funny, 181.
 Future perfect tense, 26, 27, 88, 93, 107.
 Future tense, 25, 27, 88, 106.
 Gaskell, Elizabeth, quoted, 99.
 General word, 168.
Gent, gentleman, lady, 181.
 Geology, documentation in, 233.
 Gerund, 16, 97-101, 106, 112, 152, 155-56, 160: as fragment, 113; compounds with, 131; diagramming of, 100-01; punctuation of, 100, 116-17.
Get, 109; *got, gotten*, 181.
 Glossary of Faulty Usage, 177-85.
Go, 109.
Grand, 181.
Guess, 181.
 Guide for footnotes, 231; for bibliographical list, 232.
Guy, 181.
Gym, 181.
 Hackneyed expression, 171.
Had better, had ought, had rather, 181.
Hang, 109.
 Hard *c* plus front-vowel suffix, 190.
Hardly, with negative, 181.
Have, 3, 26, 91, 93, 107.
 Hazlitt, quoted, 163.
 Heading in letters, 208-10.
Healthy, healthful, 181.
Hide, conjugation of, 225-27, 228.
Hissel, 181.
 Historical present, 25.
Honorable, 127-28, 181, 212.
However, 20, 21, 82.
Human, as noun, 181.
Hung, hanged, 109, 181.
Hyperbole, 175.
 Hyphen, 130-33.
I, capitalization of, 127.
I, words with tricky *i* (spelling), 197.
Ibid., 144.
 Idiom, 172.
I.e., 57, 127.
Ie and *ei*, spelling with, 194.
If, whether, 181.
 Illiteracy, 170.
Illusian, *see* Allusion, 178, 198.
 Illustrations in writing, 173.
 Imperative mode, 88, 106.
 Imperative sentence, 1, 15: punctuation of, 4, 115; word order in, 12.
 Impersonal pronoun, 157, 158.
In, into, 172, 181.
In-, spelling with the prefix *in-*, 193.
 Indebtedness, acknowledgment of, 136.
 Indefinite pronoun, 2, 46, 133, 157, 158.
 Independent clause, 19, 20, 147, 149: punctuation of, 20-23, 57, 81-83, 116, 119.
 Index cards, 229-30.
 Indicative mode, 88, 106-07.
 Indirect, *see* Object, Question, Quotation.
 Infinitive, 16, 101-06, 112, 116-17, 155-56, 160: as fragment, 113; diagramming of, 104-06; parenthetical, 102-03 (punctuation of, 103).
 Inserted elements, 117.

- Inside address, 210-12.
Inside of, 181.
 Intensive pronoun, 2, 55.
Inter-, spelling with the prefix *inter-*, 192.
 Interjection, 113, 116.
International Index to Periodicals, 140.
 Interrogative adverb, 71, 82.
 Interrogative pronoun, 2, 46, 57, 71, 82, 134, 157.
 Interrogative sentence, 1, 15: punctuation of, 4, 115; word order in, 11-12.
 Intransitive, 85-86, 109-11.
Investigative paper, 137-47: supplementary notes, 229-35; *see also* Manuscript.
 Irony, 116, 124-25.
 Italics, 124, 130, 166.
It as confused impersonal pronoun, 158; as indefinite, 158.
Its, it's, 46, 181, 198.

 Jargon, 167.
 Jefferson, Thomas, quoted, 142.
 Johnson, Samuel, quoted, 72.

 Key-words, 163.
Kind, kind of, kinda, 181, 182.
 Kipling, quoted, 34.
 Krapp, George, 176: quoted, 170.

Lady, *see* *Gentleman*.
 Languages, capitalization of, 127.
 Law cases, italics in, 130.
Lay, 109, 110, 111.
 Lead of a newspaper story, 163 n.
Learn, teach, 182.
Leave, let, 182.
 Legibility, 134.
Less, fewer, 182.
 Letter out of context, 31, 130, 134; letters for numbering points, 122.
 Letters (correspondence), 120, 127, 128, 208-24.
Liable, likely, apt, 182.
Lie, 109, 110, 111.
Like, 30, 34, 65.
 Literary title, 36, 124, 130.
Loan, 182.
Loc. cit., 144.
London Times Index, 140.
 Loose phrasing, 167.
 Loose sentence, 164-65.
Lose, loose, 198, 204.
Lots of, 182.
Lovely, 182.
-ly, addition of the suffix *-ly*, 191.

 Macaulay, quoted, 20, 164.
Mad, angry, 182.
 Magazine, 130: articles, 124.
 Main clause, *see* Independent.

 Manly and Rickert, *Contemporary British Literature*, 140.
 Manner, adverbial modifier of, 6, 11, 61, 62, 63, 112.
 Manuscript, 134-37; *see also* Investigative paper.
 Margins, 134.
 Masculine pronoun, 32.
 Mass plurals, 36.
 Materials for writing, 134.
 Maurois, André, quoted, 162.
May, can, 182.
Mechanics, 125-47; *see also* Abbreviations, Apostrophe, Capitals, Compounds, Investigative paper, Italics, Manuscript, Numbers, Punctuation, Spelling, Syllabication.
 Metaphor, 175.
Mighty, 182.
 Milton, quoted, 67, 126.
Mis-, spelling with the prefix *mis-*, 192.
 Misleading suggestion, 174.
 Mispronunciation, misspelling caused by, 195-96.
Mississippi, spelling of, 200.
 Mixed figure of speech, 175.
 Mode, 88, 106-07.
 Modifiers: adjective, review of, 58, 112; adverbial, review of, 80, 112; position of, 78-80; *see also* Adjective, Adverbial
 Money, sums of, 129.
 Monotony, 162; *see also* Variety.
Most, almost, 182.
Mountain, spelling of, 200.
Murmur, spelling of, 200.
 Musical compositions, 124, 130.

Namely, 57, 127.
 Narrative, 235, 236.
Nature, misuse of, 167.
 Neatness, 134.
Necessary, necessity, spelling of, 200.
New International Dictionary (Webster's), 169.
News, number of, 36.
 Newspapers, 4, 126, 130, 163 n.
New Standard Dictionary (Funk and Wagnalls), 169.
New York Times Index, 140.
Nice, 182.
 Nicknames, 124.
Night, spelling of, 200.
No account, 182.
No good, 182.
 Nominative absolute, 93-94, 165: as fragment, 94-95, 113-14; substantive of, 38, 111.
 Nominative case, 46-50.
 Nominative of address, 42, 80, 111, 113: case of, 48; diagramming of, 44-45.

- No place, nowhere*, 182.
 Note-taking, 141-42.
 Noun, 2, 6, 10, 80, 111, 124, 131, 157-58, 159: adjectival, 49, 58, 112 (diagramming of, 50-51); adverbial, 48 (diagramming of, 50-51), 80, 112; capitalization of proper nouns, 2, 126-27; number of nouns, 30-31; possessive of, 47-48, 58, 133.
 Noun clause, 70-78, 80, 112, 158, 159: diagramming of, 74-78; punctuation of, 71-72.
Nowhere near, 182.
Nowheres, 182.
Number of, a, 36.
 Number of noun, pronoun, verb, 30-37, 39.
 Numbers, writing of, 122, 128-29.
 Numerals, for numbering points, 122.
O, oh, 119, 127, 182.
O, words with tricky *o* (spelling), 197.
Ob-, spelling with the prefix *ob-*, 193.
 Object, direct, 39-40, 80, 81, 84-87, 90, 111: case of, 48-50; diagramming of, 43; gerund as, 98; infinitive as, 102; noun clause as, 70-71.
 Object, indirect, 40, 80, 111: case of, 48-50; diagramming of, 43-44.
 Objective case, 46-50, 67, 102.
 Objective complement, 40-41, 80, 84, 111: case of, 48; diagramming of, 44.
 Objective-infinitive construction, 102, 112. 159: diagramming of, 105.
 Object of a preposition, 10, 80, 81, 111: case of, 48-50; diagramming of, 13-14; gerund as, 98; infinitive as, 102; noun clause as, 71.
 Object, retained, 38, 85, 111.
 Obsolete word, 170.
Occasion, spelling of, 200.
Occupy, spelling of, 200.
Of, 182.
Oh, see *O*.
Omit, spelling of, 193.
One, he, 182.
Only, but, except that, 183.
Only, position of, 79.
Op. cit., 144.
 "Open" punctuation, 209, 210, 220.
Or, nor, 20, 35.
 Outline, 142: parallelism in, 160.
Out loud, aloud, 183.
 Outside address of letters, 220-21.
Outside of, 183.
Overly, 183.
Over with, 183.
 Paging, 136.
Pantomime, spelling of, 200.
 Paper, 134.
 Paragraph, 235-36; paragraph length in letters, 214, 215, 236.
 Paragraphing: indentation, 134; in business letters, 213-14; in personal letters, 215; in quotations, 123.
 Parallel structure, 159-61, 162; misleading parallelism, 160.
 Parentheses, 121-23.
 Parenthetical expression: position for emphasis, 165; punctuation of, 118-19, 121, 122; summary of, 113; see also Clause, Infinitive, Nominative absolute, Nominative of address, Transitional expression.
 Parliamentary motion, subjunctive in, 89.
 Participial close in letters, 215.
 Participle, 16, 90-97, 106-09, 112, 148, 152, 155-56, 159, 165: as fragment, 94, 113; diagramming of, 95-97; phrase (participial), 92; punctuation of participle, 94, 117.
Party, person, 183.
 Passive, see Voice.
 Past perfect tense, 25, 26, 27, 93.
 Past tense, 25, 26, 106-09.
Per-, spelling with the prefix *per-*, 194.
Per cent, 115.
 Perfect tense of verbals, 91, 98, 101-02, 104.
 Period, 4, 56, 57, 115, 118, 119, 121, 122, 124, 128.
 Periodic sentence, 164-65.
 Person, 27, 27-30.
 Personal pronoun, 2, 46, 134, 157.
 Personification, 175; capitalization of, 126.
Phone, photo, 183.
 Phrase, 10-15, 53, 116-17, 147, 148, 149, 155: as fragment, 113; diagramming of, 13-15; see also Adjective phrase, Adverbial phrase, Gerund, Infinitive, Participle.
Piece, 194-95, 205; *piece, peace*, 198.
 Place, adverbial modifier of, 6, 61, 62, 63, 80, 112.
 Plagiarism, 136.
Plenty, 183.
 Plural, see Number or Agreement.
 Plutarch, quoted, 19.
 Poems, poetry, 124, 125, 130.
 Poetic word, 170.
 Polite request, 28, 116.
Politics, number of, 36.
 Poole's *Index to Periodical Literature*, 140.
 Position: emphasis by, 163-65; of modifiers, 78-80.
 Positive degree, 6, 67.
 Possessive case, 46-49: with gerund, 98-99.

- Practical, practicable*, 183.
Pre-, spelling with the prefix *pre-*, 193, 194.
 Predicate, 1, 3, 15-18, 19, 38-40, 52, 80: adjective, 6, 39 (diagramming of, 9, 42-43); complete, 11; compound, 3-4 (diagramming of, 5), 147; diagramming of verb, 4-5; predicate noun or pronoun, *see* Subjective complement; predicate substantive, 39; simple predicate, 11.
Preferable to, than, 183.
 Prefixes, spelling with, 192-94.
 Preposition, 10, 65, 66, 112, 126, 163 n.
 Prepositional phrase, *see* Phrase.
 Present perfect tense, 25, 26, 27, 88, 93.
 Present tense, 25, 26, 27, 88-89, 91, 98, 101-02, 106-07.
 Principal clause, *see* Independent.
 Principal parts of verbs, 106-09.
Principal, principle, 183, 199, 205.
Privilege, spelling of, 197, 200.
Pro-, spelling with the prefix *pro-*, 193.
Proceeds, number of, 36.
Prof, 183.
 Progressive conjugation, 227.
 Pronoun, 2, 6, 80, 111, 156: agreement with antecedent, 32; case forms of, 46, 133; case of, in noun clause, 73; number of, 32; person, 27; possessive, 46, 58, 112; reference of, 157-59; *see also* Indefinite, Intensive, Interrogative, Personal, Reflexive, Relative.
 Proper noun, 2, 124, 131: capitalization of, 2, 126-27; number of, 30; possessive of, if in *s* or *z*, 47.
Provided that, punctuation before, 64.
Providing for provided, 66.
 Public officials: inside address for, 211; salutation for, 212-13.
 Punctuation, 115-25: adjective clause, 53-55; adverbial clause, 63-65, 116-17; appositive, 55-56; comma splice, 21-23, 82, 116, 150; complete treatment of, 115-25; complicated non-restrictive expression, 56; compound sentence, 20-23, 116, 119; gerund, 100, 116-17; independent clauses, 20-23, 57, 81-83, 116, 118, 119; initial phrase, 13, 116-17; nominative absolute, 94-95; nominative of address, 42; non-restrictive adjective, 55; noun clause, 71-72; parenthetical clause, 22, 57-58; parenthetical infinitive, 103; "partial" appositive, 56-57; participle, 94; restrictive, non-restrictive, 53-57, 63-65, 71-72, 94, 117, 121; "run together" sentence, 22-23; sentence, 4, 115, 116; series, 4, 117; summary of punctuation of clauses, 81-83; *see also* Apostrophe, Brackets, Colon, Comma, Dash, Exclamation point, Parentheses, Period, Question mark, Quotation marks, Semicolon.
 Punctuation, "open" and "closed," 209, 210, 220.
 Purpose clause, 27, 61-62, 64-65, 90, 112.
 Question: direct, 1, 2, 4, 29, 115; indirect, 2, 26, 71, 115.
 Question mark, 4, 115-16, 121, 122, 124, 135.
 Quiller-Couch, Sir Arthur, quoted, 167.
Quite, 183; *quite, quiet*, 198.
 Quotation, direct, 71, 72, 118, 120, 123, 125: blocked, 135; citation of source, 136; editorial insertion in, 122, 135; omission from, 135.
 Quotation, indirect, 26-27, 29, 71, 72, 118, 119, 123.
 Quotation marks, 123-25.
Raise, 109.
Re-, spelling with the prefix *re-*, 193.
Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature, 140.
Real, very, 183.
 Reason, 61, 62, 73, 112.
Recommend, subjunctive after, 89.
Refer back, 183.
 Reference of pronouns, 157-59.
 Reflexive pronoun, 2: as direct object, 39-40.
 Related words with minor differences, spelling of, 199.
 Relative adverb, 53, 82-83, 112: diagramming of, 60.
 Relative pronoun, 2, 46, 53, 71, 82, 112, 134: as subject, number of verb with, 35; case of, 57-58; diagramming of, 58-59.
Remainder of, the, 36.
Repeat again, 184.
 Repetition, 149, 156-57, 166.
 Reply letter, 215.
Resolved, 127, 130.
Rest of, the, 36.
 Restrictive, non-restrictive, 53-57, 63-65, 71-72, 94, 117; complicated non-restrictive expression, 56, 121.
 Result clauses, 61-62, 112.
 Retained object, 38, 85, 111.
Reverend, 127-28, 184, 212.
 Review of: adjective modifiers, 58, 112; adverbial modifiers, 80, 112; diagramming, general, 114; diagramming of clauses, 83-84; diagramming of first eight chapters, 51-52; fragmentary sentences, 113-14; grammatical elements, 111-13; substantives, 80, 111-12; *see also* Summary.
 Rhetorical question, 166.

- Rise*, 109.
 Roget's *Thesaurus*, 169, 176.
 Roman notation, 228.
 Rowse and Rowse, *How to Use the Library*, 141 n.
 "Run-together" sentence, 22-23.
- S*, addition of *s* (spelling), 30, 191.
Said he, punctuation with, 72, 123.
 Salutation of a letter, 120, 127, 212-13.
Same, as a pronoun, 184, 215.
Scarcely, with negative, 184.
Scissors, number of, 36.
 Secondary clause, *see* Dependent.
 Semicolon, 20-23, 56, 57, 66, 81-83, 94, 118, 119-20.
 Semi-formal social notes, 222.
 Sentence, 1, 15: capitalization, 4, 125; complex, 52, 81, 153-55; compound, 19-24, 81-83, 116, 119, 147, 153-55; compound-complex, 74, 76, 81; elliptical, 17-18; fragmentary, 15-18, 56, 83, 113, 115; loose, 164-65; periodic, 164-65; punctuation of, 4, 115, 116; parentheses around, 122; "run-together," 22-23; simple, 1, 19, 81, 150, 153-55; summary of, 81; variety of sentence beginning, 155-56; variety of sentence types, 153-55.
 Separation, emphasis by, 162.
Sergeant, spelling of, 200.
 Series: climactic order in, 165; colon before, 120; dash before expression summing up a series, 121; parallelism in, 159; punctuation of, 4, 117.
 Series, documentation for book in, 231-32.
Set, 109, 110-11.
 Shakespeare, quoted, 125.
Shall, 26, 27-29, 184.
Shape, condition, 184.
Shears, number of, 36.
 Ships, 130.
 Short paragraphs, 236.
Should, 26, 29-30.
 Signature, 217.
 Silent letters, faulty omission of, 196.
Similar, spelling of, 200.
 Simile, 174.
 Simple, *see* Predicate, Sentence, Subject.
Since, 66.
 Singular, *see* Number or Agreement.
Sit, 109, 110-11.
 Slang, 124, 170.
Smart, 184.
 Snell, F. C., quoted, 122.
So, 20, 21, 66, 150, 184.
So . . . as, 62, 66, 67.
 Social notes: formal, 221-22; semi-formal, 222.
So clause, 20, 22-23, 150.
 Soft *c* or *g* plus a back-vowel suffix, 190.
Some, as an adverb, 184.
Somebody, 32; *someone*, 32, 132.
Someplace, *somewhere*, 184.
Somewheres, 184.
Sort, *sort of*, *sorta*, 184.
 Source, citation of, 136.
 Spacing, 134; in letters, 213-14.
 Specific word, 168.
 Spelling, 187-207: participles and gerunds, 91-92, 107-09; plurals, 30-31; possessives, 46-48. For an alphabetical list of many of the words treated in the chapter on spelling, *see* pp. 201-06; for other alphabetical lists, *see* "Superficial Similarities" (198-99) and "Supplementary Test List" (207). *See also* Apostrophe, Compounds.
 Split infinitive, 103.
 "Squinting" modifier, 79-80.
 Standard word, 169.
Stationery, 208, 221; *stationery*, *stationary*, 197, 199, 206.
 Stenographer, initials of, 217.
 Stevens, D. H., *Reference Guide to Milton*, 140.
 Stevenson, R. L., quoted, 156.
 Stories, titles of, 124.
 Street numbers, 128.
 Stringy sentence, 150-51, 152.
Sub-, spelling with the prefix *sub-*, 193.
 Subject, 1, 15, 16-18, 19, 52, 80, 81, 84-87, 111, 155: case of, 48; complete, 11; compound, 3, 4 (diagramming, 5), 34-37; diagramming of, 4-5; gerund as, 98; infinitive as, 102; noun clause as, 70, 71; position of, 11-12; of gerund, 98-99; of objective-infinitive construction, 38, 102, 111, 112; simple, 1 11.
 Subjective complement, 6, 38-39, 42, 80, 81, 84, 90, 111, 159: case of, 48-49; diagramming of, 9, 42-43, 87-88; gerund as, 98; infinitive as, 102; noun clause as, 70.
 Subjunctive, 88-90, 106-07.
 Subordinate clause, *see* Dependent.
 Subordinating conjunctions, 62-63, 65-67, 71, 73-74, 82, 92, 148.
 Subordination, 149-52, 161: by means of verbals, 152.
 Substantive, 38, 52, 111: adjective as, 38, 80, 111; compound substantive constructions, 42, 157; diagramming of, 42-45; functions of, 38-45, 111; predicate substantive, 39; *see also* Gerund, Infinitive, Noun, Noun clause, Pronoun.
 Subtopic on bibliography card, 229.

- Such*, as intensive, 66, 184.
Such as, punctuation of, 56.
 Suffixes, spelling with, 190-91.
 Suggestive diction, 172-75.
 Summary of: clauses and sentences, 80-81; emphasis, 161-66; punctuation, 115-25; punctuation of clauses, 81-83; *see also* Review.
 Superficial similarities, spelling of words with, 198-99.
Superior to, than, 184.
 Superlative degree, 7-8, 67.
Supersede, spelling of, 195.
 Supplementary notes on the investigative paper, 229-35.
Sure, as an adverb, 185.
Suspicion, as a verb, 185.
 Syllabication, 132-33.
 Symbol out of context, 31, 130, 134.
 Synonyms, 148, 156.
- Tables, 128.
 Tautology, 148.
 Technical terms, 124.
 Technical writing, 128.
 Tense, 25-30, 88-89, 91, 93, 98, 101-02, 106-09: sequence of, 26-27, 104; shift of, 26.
Terrible, terribly, very, 185.
 Test list of spelling words, 201-07.
Than, 66, 67; *than whom*, 67.
Than, then, 199, 206.
That, 35, 53, 65, 71.
That is, 57, 127.
Theirselves, *see hisself*, 181.
Their, there, they're, 199, 206.
There is (was), number of subject of, 35.
Thesaurus, Roget, 169, 176.
They as indefinite pronoun, 158.
This here, that there, 185.
 Time, adverbial modifier of, 6, 11, 61, 62, 63, 80, 112.
 Time indication, 120, 127, 128.
Times, *see* London or New York.
 Titles, 36, 124, 126-27, 130, 131, 134-35.
Today, tomorrow, tonight, 132.
To, too, two, 199, 206.
Too, very, 185.
 Topic statement of a paragraph, 235.
 Transition, 235, 236.
 Transitional expression, 20-23, 57, 113, 118, 119, 165.
 Transitive, 85, 86, 109-11.
 Transposed word order, emphasis by, 165.
 Tricky vowels, spelling of words with, 196-97.
 Trite diction, 171; in letters, 215.
- Troublesome verbs, 106-11.
Try and, to, 185.
- Un-*, spelling with the prefix *un-*, 192.
 Unidiomatic expressions, 172.
 Unity in the paragraph, 235.
Until, spelling of, 199, 206.
 Upside-down subordination, 151.
Up, with verbs, 185.
- Variety, 12, 149, 152-59, 166.
 Verb, 3, 6, 16-18, 19: conjugation of, 225-28; copulative, 6; diagramming of, 4-5; finite form of, 15-16, 112; intransitive, 85-86; irregular, 108; mode, 88-90; number, 33-37, 39; person, 27; principal parts, 106-09; regular, 108; senses, pertaining to, 8; strong, 107; tense, 25-30; transitive, 85-86; troublesome, 106-11; weak, 107-08; *see also* Predicate, Verbal.
 Verbal, 16, 90, 104, 107: in initial position, 155; subordination by means of, 152; *see also* Gerund, Infinitive, Participle.
Very with past participles, 185.
Villain, spelling of, 200.
Viz., 57, 127, 130.
 Vocabulary, increase in, 176-77.
 Voice, 84-85, 86, 87, 89, 90, 91, 93, 98, 101-02, 106-07: shifting of, 87; strong passive, 86, 161; weak passive, 87, 161.
 Vulgarism, 170.
- Way, in . . . way*, 185.
We (for I), 185.
 Webster's dictionaries, 169, 174.
When, whence, 53: *is when* clause, 74.
Where, 53: *is where* clause, 74: *where* for *that*, 74; spelling of *where*, 201.
Whereas, 62, 65, 127.
Where . . . at, *see At*, 179.
Where, spelling of, 201.
Which, 35, 53, 160; spelling of, 201.
Which, who, that, 185.
While, 53, 65-66.
Whither, 53.
Who, 35, 46, 53: *than whom*, 67.
Whose, of which, 185.
Whose, who's, 46, 199, 206.
Why, 53.
 Widow, *see* Woman (signature, etc.)
Will, 26, 27-29.
 Wilson, Woodrow, quoted, 174.
 Wishes, 30, 89.
Without, not conjunction, 65.
 Woman: inside address for, 211; signature of, 217; outside address for, 221.
 Wordiness, 147-49.
 Word out of context, 31, 130, 134.
 Word, the, *see* Diction.

Would, 26, 29–30.

Would better, would rather, 185.

W'ile-up, 185.

Written, spelling of, 200.

You as indefinite pronoun, 158.

You know, parenthetical, 57–58, 119.

Your, you're, 46, 199, 206.

You was, 185.

A WRITER'S WORKBOOK

A Writer's Workbook

PAUL P. KIES

State College of Washington

in collaboration with

VALEDA BROCKWAY

ELLA E. CLARK

State College of Washington

ANDREW J. GREEN

University of Michigan

and

ROYAL A. GETTMANN

University of Nebraska

Enlarged Edition

1943

F. S. CROFTS & CO.

New York

COPYRIGHT, 1933, 1936, BY F. S. CROFTS & CO., INC.

First Printing, May, 1933

Enlarged Edition, 1936

Seventeenth printing, March, 1943.

ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

No part of the material covered by this copyright may be reproduced in any form without permission in writing from the publisher.

MANUFACTURED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

CONTENTS

	Practice Sheet No.
CHAPTER 1. SUBJECT AND PREDICATE	
A) Nouns and Pronouns. B) Subject and Predicate.....	1
C) Subject and Predicate; Punctuation.....	2
CHAPTER 2. ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS	
A) Distinction between Adjectives and Adverbs. B) Use of Adjectives and Adverbs.....	3
C) Use of Adjectives and Adverbs.....	4
CHAPTER 3. PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES	
A) Classification of Phrases. B) The Delayed Subject.....	5
C) Complete Subject and Predicate; Punctuation. D) "Due to".....	6
CHAPTER 4. FRAGMENTS AS SENTENCES	
A) Completion of Fragments. B) Revision of Fragmentary Sentences.....	7
CHAPTER 5. THE COMPOUND SENTENCE	
A) Combination of Simple Sentences. B) Transitions.....	8
C) Independent Clauses. D) Punctuation of the Compound Sentence.....	9
E) Revision of Faulty Sentences.....	10
CHAPTER 6. TENSE AND PERSON	
A) Recognition of Tense. B) The Tenses.....	11
C) Sequence of Tenses. D) Errors in Tense.....	12
E) <i>Shall—Will, Should—Would</i>	13
CHAPTER 7. NUMBER	
A) Number of Nouns. B) Number of Pronouns and of Verbs.....	14
C) Agreement of Pronoun and Antecedent. D) Agreement of Verb with Delayed Subject. E) Agreement of Verb. F) Agreement of Verb.....	15
G) Agreement of Verb. H) Correction of Errors in Number.....	16
CHAPTER 8. FUNCTIONS OF THE SUBSTANTIVE	
A) Subjective Complement and Direct Object. B) Subjective Complement, Direct Object, and Indirect Object.....	17
C) Certain Uses of the Substantive.....	18
D) Functions of the Substantive. E) Functions of the Substantive.....	19
CHAPTER 9. CASE	
A) Number and Case Forms of Nouns. B) Use of the Apostrophe.....	20
C) Case of Pronouns.....	21
CHAPTER 10. THE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE	
A) The Adjective Clause. B) The Adjective Clause. C) Restrictive and Non-Restrictive. D) Restrictive and Non-Restrictive.....	22
E) Change of Simple Sentence to Adjective Clause. F) Punctuation of Adjective Modifiers.....	23
G) Case of Relative and Interrogative Pronouns. H) Review of Adjective Modifiers.....	24

	Practice Sheet No.
CHAPTER 11. THE ADVERBIAL CLAUSE	
A) Adverbial Relationships. B) Conjunctions and Comparisons.	25
C) Conjunctions and Comparisons. D) Correction of Faulty Sentences. . . .	26
E) Position of Adverbial Clauses. F) Punctuation of Restrictive and Non-Restrictive Elements.	27
CHAPTER 12. THE NOUN CLAUSE	
A) Recognition of the Noun Clause. B) Functions of the Noun Clause. . . .	28
C) Punctuation. D) Case of Pronouns in Noun Clauses.	29
E) Conjunctions with Noun Clauses. F) Correction of Faulty Sentences. . . .	29
CHAPTER 13. POSITION OF MODIFIERS; REVIEW	
A) Position of Modifiers.	30
B) Review of Modifiers.	31
C) Review of Substantives and Modifiers.	32
D) Review of the Punctuation of Clauses.	33
CHAPTER 14. VOICE; TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE	
A) Certain Aspects of the Verb. B) Change of Voice. C) Voice.	34
D) Use of the Passive. E) The Weak Passive. F) Review of Voice.	35
CHAPTER 15. THE SUBJUNCTIVE MODE	
A) The Subjunctive. B) The Subjunctive.	36
CHAPTER 16. THE PARTICIPLE	
A) Participles. B) Forms of the Participle.	37
C) Forms of the Participle. D) The Nominative Absolute. E) The Dangling Participle.	38
CHAPTER 17. THE GERUND	
A) Gerunds. B) Participles and Gerunds.	39
C) Functions of the Gerund. D) The Possessive with the Gerund. E) Dangling Gerund Phrases. F) Reduction of Clauses to Verbals.	40
CHAPTER 18. THE INFINITIVE	
A) Functions of the Infinitive. B) The Dangling Infinitive. C) The Split Infinitive.	41
D) Case in Objective-Infinitive Constructions. E) Review of Case. F) Sequence of Tenses in Verbals. G) Reduction of Clauses to Verbals.	42
CHAPTER 19. TROUBLESOME VERBS	
A) Principal Parts. B) Verb Forms.	43
C) Verb Forms. D) Rise—Raise.	44
E) Lie—Lay. F) Sit—Set.	45
CHAPTER 20. REVIEW OF GRAMMATICAL ELEMENTS	
A) Review of Grammatical Elements.	46
B) Review of Grammatical Elements.	47
C) Review of Fragmentary Sentences, Comma Splices, and "Run-Together" Sentences.	48
D) Correction of Faulty Sentences.	49
CHAPTER 21. PUNCTUATION	
A) The Comma.	50
B) The Semicolon, the Period, and the Comma. C) The Colon and the Comma.	51
D) The Dash. E) Parentheses and Brackets. F) Parenthetical and Appositional Material.	52
G) Quotation Marks. H) Review of Punctuation.	53
I) Review of Punctuation.	54

CONTENTS

vii

	Practice Sheet No
CHAPTER 22 MECHANICS	
A) Capitalization B) Abbreviations	55
C) Numbers D) Numbers E) Italics	56
F) Compounds G) Syllabication H) The Apostrophe	57
CHAPTER 23 ECONOMY	
A) Wordiness B) Elliptical Clauses C) Dangling Elliptical Clauses	58
CHAPTER 24 SUBORDINATION	
A) Emphasis by Subordination B) Correction of Comma Splices by Subordination C) Combination of Choppy Sentences	59
D) The Stringy Sentence E) Rhetorical Value of Verbals	60
CHAPTER 25. VARIETY	
A) Offensive Repetition of Words B) Faulty Reference of Pronouns	61
C) Variety of Sentence Types and Sentence Beginnings D) Variety of Sentence Types and Sentence Beginnings	62
CHAPTER 26 PARALLELISM	
A) Parallel Structure B) Parallel Structure	63
C) Parallel Structure D) Parallelism	64
CHAPTER 27. EMPHASIS	
A) Balanced and Parallel Structure	65
B) Balanced Sentences C) Emphasis by Structure	66
D) Emphasis by Structure E) Key-Words	67
F) Loose and Periodic Sentences G) Loose and Periodic Sentences	68
H) Emphasis by Position J) Emphasis by Repetition K) Review of Emphasis	69
L) Review of Emphasis M) Review of Emphasis	70
CHAPTER 28 DICTION	
F) Correct and Appropriate Diction G) Faulty Diction	71
H) Faulty Diction	72
REVIEW	
A) Grammatical Analysis	73
B) Grammatical Analysis	74
C) Aspects of the Verb	75
D) Fragments	76
E) Comma Splices and "Run Together" Sentences F) Punctuation of Clauses	77
G) Punctuation of Clauses H) Punctuation and Other Mechanics	78
J) Punctuation and Other Mechanics	79
K) Grammatical Usage and Diction	80
L) Grammatical Usage M) Grammatical Usage	81
N) Grammatical Usage O) Effectiveness	82
P) Effectiveness Q) Effectiveness R) Effectiveness	83
S) Italics and Quotation Marks T) Mechanics. . .	84

TO THE STUDENT

In preparing an exercise in the *Workbook*, first study the corresponding explanatory portion of the *Manual*—even if your instructor does not specifically mention the latter in the assignment. The chapter number for the explanation is the same as that for the exercise.

This *Workbook* is designed to save you as much time as possible. Most of the exercises are to be prepared right on the printed sheet and require very little writing on your part. Be careful, however, to follow the instructions exactly and to do everything called for; as a special precaution against omissions, you will find it advisable to reread the directions after completing each exercise. In sentences for alteration (as on Practice Sheets 7 and 8), you should be sure to make changes in punctuation and capitalization if any are necessary. A few exercises (for instance, Exercise E on Practice Sheet 27), because of requiring more space than is provided on the printed sheets, are to be written out on separate paper; they should be fully endorsed (see rule 22.50) with the inclusion of the practice sheet number, the exercise number, and the exercise heading.

In altering sentences, use the following system: To add punctuation, insert the mark at the proper point. To remove punctuation or a single letter, draw through it a nearly vertical line (/). To add a word or passage, place a caret (^) at the point of insertion and write the material above it. To eliminate a word or passage, cross it out with a straight horizontal line. To replace a word or passage, cross out the old material and write the substitution immediately above it. To shift a word or passage, encircle it and draw a line from the oval to a caret placed at the point of insertion. These six methods of making alterations are illustrated in the following sentence:

Yes, Uncle ^{have already} John, I ~~changed the tire today~~ ^{changed the tire today}, in order that George and ^I ~~we~~ may not be delayed in getting started (tomorrow morning)

PRACTICE SHEET 1

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER I. EXERCISE A. NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

In the following sentences draw one line under each noun and two lines under each pronoun.

1. One of the most interesting events of 1930 was the discovery of the bodies of the Swedish explorer Andrée and his companions, who disappeared thirty-three years ago in an attempt to fly across the North Pole in a balloon.
2. A party of Norwegian scientists, with Doctor Horn as head of the expedition, landed in August on White Island, which is one of the islands in the Spitzbergen Archipelago in the Arctic Ocean.
3. There they first found some cooking utensils about 150 yards from shore, then three bodies imbedded in the ice, and later a pedometer and a diary with Andrée's name upon them.
4. The expedition of Andrée, the first undertaking of its kind, was based upon what he believed to be scientific data.
5. It was the sort of venture that few would wish to attempt.
6. Another interesting incident of the year was the discovery, at the observatory at Flagstaff, Arizona, of the planet Pluto.
7. It is the ninth member of our solar system and is four billion miles from the sun.
8. Several astronomers had been searching for this for twenty-five years.
9. Each of my clerks will help you next week as much as he can.
10. "The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Awaits alike the inevitable hour.
The paths of glory lead but to the grave."

—Gray.

EXERCISE B. SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

On the lines at the left of each sentence, write the subject (S.) and the verb (V.). If either is compound, place all the parts on the proper line. You may find it wise to select the verb first; the subject answers the question *who?* or *what?* placed before the verb. (Caution: *never* and *not* are never part of the verb.)

Example: V. did go Four of us fellows did not go yesterday.
S. four

- V. died 1. Yesterday a hog died from fright.
S. hog
- V. shot 2. A farmer near The Dalles, Oregon, shot one hog
S. farmer in the head with his rifle.
- V. drop-kicked 3. The second one also dropped, kicked his heels
S. one a few times, and died.
- V. Administered 4. The oath of office was administered by the
S. oath governor's father.
- V. might prefer 5. He might have preferred the other boat.
S. He
- V. must go 6. You must not go without him.
S. you
- V. colors 7. The soil of the mountains of China, carried down
S. soil by streams and rivers, colors the surrounding
ocean a grayish yellow.
- V. has 8. According to one estimate, China has a popula-
S. China tion of 400,000,000.
- V. became 9. Nanking, meaning "southern capital," became
S. Nanking the capital of China in 1927.
- V. raise 10. The farmers of southern China raise rice and
S. farmers mulberry leaves for silkworms on farms averag-
ing less than three acres.

PRACTICE SHEET 3

Name..... et al. Date... 08.11.14

CHAPTER 2. EXERCISE A. DISTINCTION BETWEEN ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

In the following sentences draw one line under each adjective and two lines under each adverb.

1. He sings very well; in fact, he has the best tenor voice on this campus.
2. He looks unusually well, but he becomes tired easily.
3. That first point is too difficult and complex for me to understand.
4. Motson is not able to do such work quickly and accurately.
5. Rather recently I saw this man well and happy.
6. The dealer has but one car in stock—the very kind that I want.
7. The youngest son is now almost nineteen years old.
8. Some guests are still here.

EXERCISE B. USE OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

At the left, write the words that are correct according to formal usage. For words involving principles not treated in Chapter 2, consult Chapter 28, §F, or a dictionary.

- | | |
|------------------|---|
| <u>well</u> | 1. I am getting along (good, well) in English. |
| <u>quietly</u> | 2. Do your work as (quiet, quietly) as you can. |
| <u>badly</u> | 3. He felt (bad, badly) about his mistake. |
| <u>smoothly</u> | 4. The engine runs as (smooth, smoothly) as ever. |
| <u>very well</u> | 5. She plays (real, very) (good, well). |
| <u>surely</u> | 6. It is (sure, surely) an interesting book. |

sure
nearly
almost
surely
further
ill
somewhat
almost
well
more easily
bitterly
bitter
sweet
superior
ill
all right
hardly
awkward
nearly
silent
steadily

7. I am (sure, surely) that you will be interested in those as (near, nearly) perfect as these.
8. We are (most, almost) ready; we shall (sure, surely) be on time.
9. Have you anything (farther, further) to say?
10. She still looks (ill, illy), but she really feels (some, somewhat) better.
11. (Most, almost) anyone could have done as (good, well) as she did.
12. She does this work (easier, more easily) than I.
13. The girl smiled (bitter, bitterly) when I told her.
14. The medicine tastes (bitter, bitterly) but smells (sweet, sweetly).
15. Our team is (superior, more superior) to yours.
16. He looks (bad, badly, ill, illy), but I am sure that he will be (all right, alright) in a few days.
17. He could (hardly, not hardly) pay his bills.
18. He always looks so (awkward, awkwardly) that I (near, nearly) lose my patience every day.
19. He remained (silent, silently) and looked at me (steady, steadily) for a few seconds.

PRACTICE SHEET 5

Name E. Nedeljs Date Oct. 22, 1943

CHAPTER 3. EXERCISE A. CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASES

In the following sentences put a brace over each prepositional phrase. Place a cross under the word which it modifies. Over each adjective phrase write *Adj.*; over each adverbial phrase write *Adv.* For review, write in the lines at the left each verb (V.) and its subject (S.).

Example:

V. <u>begins, ends</u>	A formal meal ^{Adj.} in China ^{Adv.} begins with sweets and
S. <u>meal</u>	^{Adv.} ends with soup.

V. <u>is</u>	1. At Chinese banquets ^{adv.} the left ^{adj.} is the seat of honor.
S. <u>left</u>	

V. <u>keep, carry</u>	2. According to the custom ^{adv.} of some sections, Chinese men ^{adv.} keep their hats on in polite society and
S. <u>men</u>	carry beautiful fans ^{adv.} on many occasions.

V. <u>saw</u>	3. In the woods ^{adv.} near Peking, we saw pine trees ^{adv.}
S. <u>we</u>	with white bark.

V. <u>was</u>	4. Surrounded by oceans, deserts, and impassable
S. <u>china</u>	mountains, China was known ^{adv.} for centuries only
	to an occasional traveler.

V. <u>has associated</u>	5. Because of her isolation ^{adv.} , this vast country ^{adv.} of the
S. <u>country</u>	Orient ^{adv.} has, until recent years, associated little
	with the West.

V. <u>spoke</u>	6. The speaker ^{adv.} at the commencement exercises ^{adv.} spoke
S. <u>speaker</u>	to us concerning the need ^{adv.} of a better understanding between China and the United States.

5

A WRITER'S WORKBOOK

V. was

S. price

V. juts

S. bluffs

V. should have visited

S. you

V. drove

S. he

7. On account of the great demand for wheat, the price of that grain was very high during the latter part of the World War.
8. This town of Brittany, perched upon a grim bluff, juts out into the sea.
9. You should have visited one of the harbors of Normandy.
10. In spite of our warning, he drove down the hill and around the curve at a tremendous speed.

EXERCISE B. THE DELAYED SUBJECT

Write the verbs and the subjects on the lines at the left. Notice that some of the sentences have the inverted order (see § D).

V. are

S. problems

V. flew

S. ships

V. are

S. beds

V. were

S. members

V. went

S. people

V. surprised & killed

S. Indians

V. is

S. cemetery

1. There are many problems before us.
2. "Swiftly, swiftly flew the ship."—Coleridge.
3. Below the cliffs of Brittany are beds of oysters.
4. There were thirty-two charter members of the League of Nations.
5. Eighty-six people went down with the ship.
6. During the night the Indians surprised the little settlement and killed all the inhabitants.
7. By the side of the church is a little cemetery with old-fashioned tombstones.

PRACTICE SHEET 6

Name Date

CHAPTER 3. EXERCISE C. COMPLETE SUBJECT AND PREDICATE; PUNCTUATION

Underscore the complete predicate once and the complete subject twice. Remember that the predicate or a part of it may stand before the subject. Add marks of punctuation wherever they are essential (see Chapter 1, § G, and Chapter 3, § F).

1. Have you ever seen a picture of the Angkor?
2. This beautiful temple in Indo-China has been visited by few travelers.
3. Because of their traditional ancestor worship the Chinese guard the graves of the dead and honor them with ceremonies at various times of the year.
4. According to the report of the International Famine Relief Commission of 1922 more than half of the families of China live on \$150 or less a year.
5. Among the famous poets laureate of England have been Ben Jonson Dryden Southey Wordsworth and Tennyson.
6. John Masfield became Poet Laureate in 1930.
7. Among Masfield's collected works are found sea ballads narrative poems personal lyrics and novels.
8. Masfield ran away from home at the age of fourteen lived a vagabond life on sea and land did odd jobs in New York and Yonkers read poetry in his leisure time and, on being charmed by one of Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*, decided at the age of twenty-eight to become a poet.
9. One of America's most democratic poets is Carl Sandburg.
10. Sandburg worked as a boy in factories and in the Kansas wheat fields served as a private during the Spanish-American War was editor of the college paper and captain of the basket-ball team and has held positions in journalism and advertising.
11. During the first four years of the League of Nations forty-five international conferences were held.
12. In the World Court are eleven regular and four deputy judges, elected for nine years by the Council and the Assembly of the League of Nations.
13. There we camped for about two months.

EXERCISE D. "DUE TO"

On each line at the left, write *due to*, *because of*, or *on account of* in accordance with the requirement of the blank space in the respective sentence.

- _____ 1. _____ the success of Hull House in Chicago, numerous other settlement houses have been established.
- _____ 2. His success was _____ his initiative and his magnetic personality.
- _____ 3. _____ an attack of infantile paralysis in his youth, his left leg was shorter than his right.
- _____ 4. _____ his reckless spending, Jack's inheritance was soon gone.
- _____ 5. Many men and women are out of work _____ the closing of textile mills.
- _____ 6. In some industries high production costs are _____ the maintenance of war-time wages.
- _____ 7. _____ the over-supply of wheat in our country, the Farm Board urged the curtailment of production.
- _____ 8. The promotions of the judges were not _____ merit.
- _____ 9. In several states the distress _____ the serious drought of 1930 was relieved by the Red Cross.
- _____ 10. _____ the scarcity of ducks, the Department of Agriculture is seriously considering an entirely closed season on these birds for a year.
- _____ 11. The sale of phonographs has greatly fallen off in recent years _____ the popularity of the radio.
- _____ 12. _____ the slump in oil investments, he became a poor man.
- _____ 13. Dean Shaver has applied for a leave of absence _____ ill health.
- _____ 14. My failure was not _____ indifference.

PRACTICE SHEET 7

Name..... Date.....

CHAPTER 4. EXERCISE A. COMPLETION OF FRAGMENTS

Make complete sentences of the following expressions by adding elements or by changing verbals into finite forms of the verb. Be careful to alter capitalization and to add punctuation wherever necessary. Make the changes right on this sheet, not re-copying words that remain the same. (For the method of indicating substitutions, see the "example" for Exercise H on Practice Sheet 16; and for that of inserting material, see the word *whom* in sentence 1 of Exercise E on Practice Sheet 23.)

1. Because of an exaggerated opinion of his own importance -
2. ~~Doing~~ so for the sole purpose of making her fiancé jealous .
3. A good mind and a determination to succeed .
4. With such an excellent harbor and such an extensive waterfront
5. Opportunities to secure work ~~being~~ scarce .

EXERCISE B. REVISION OF FRAGMENTARY SENTENCES

Revise each of the following passages that is fragmentary, having care for logical texture and completeness of thought. If you find one that is correct, place a C. before it.

1. I have always dreamed of a roommate who would be a close friend.
One that I should want to take home holidays because he lived far away.
2. The motorcycle, starting on the ground floor, gained speed and followed a circular course to the top.
3. It was a beautiful specimen of steel-head trout. One that anybody would be proud of catching.
4. In another compartment were little cars where people could run into each other to their hearts' content. Then the boat ride, the Merry Mix-up, the Whip, the Fun House, the place where people ^{and the people}

→ tried to walk through a rotating barrel, and many other forms of amusement.

5. In reality, he had put down his old ideas and had developed new ones. ~~Ideas more sane.~~

6. Tie two hooks on this six-foot leader. One on the lower end and one about three or four inches from the end. ~~Now~~ you are ready to put on the bait. The upper hook is hooked through the lips of the herring. The lower one through the tail.

7. I was startled by a faint noise. Somebody was speaking to me barely above a whisper.

8. We were then taken ~~to~~ a very large room full of beds. Large beds, small beds, double-decker beds, hard beds, but search as I might, I could find no soft beds.

9. This method of hypnotism produces varying degrees of hysterics. ~~Finally~~ sleep intervenes.

10. At that time the women of the camp washed, ironed, cooked, and gossiped. Now, a silence, except for the occasional call of a wild bird.

11. I should think every young person would want to work during the summer. First, so he wouldn't be wasting time, and, secondly, so he could save money to further his education.

12. I find it a very interesting subject. ~~So really~~ fascinating that I want to tell you about it.

PRACTICE SHEET 8

Name..... *E. J. Keddy* Date..... *Oct 18, 1943*

CHAPTER 5. EXERCISE A. COMBINATION OF SIMPLE SENTENCES

Change the following into compound sentences with conjunctions, being careful to punctuate correctly and to change the capitalization wherever necessary. For a list of coördinating conjunctions, see Chapter 5, § C.

1. We tried to get tickets for the lecture by Will Durant. All the seats had been sold.
We tried to get tickets for the lecture by Will Durant, but all the seats had been sold.
2. In A. D. 597 the missionary expedition under Augustine arrived in Kent. By about 650 practically all of England had been Christianized.
In A.D. 597 the missionary expedition under Augustine arrived in Kent, but about 650 practically all of England had been Christianized.
3. A knowledge of the breast stroke is very necessary in life-saving. Several of the methods of rescuing drowning persons are based upon it.
A knowledge of the breast stroke is very necessary in life-saving. Several of the methods of rescuing drowning persons are based upon it.
4. Some states have already considered adopting a one-house legislature. In a generation or two the movement in favor of this system may be well under way.
Some states have already considered adopting a one-house legislature, and in a generation or two the movement in favor of this system may be well under way.
5. I wore a hat and a slicker. These did not keep me dry.
I wore a hat and a slicker, but these did not keep me dry.
6. The World War began in 1914. The United States did not enter the struggle until 1917.
The World War began in 1914, but the United States did not enter into the struggle until 1917.
7. The gypsies would not remain in one place more than a short time. They were of a roving inclination and could not settle down.
The gypsies would not remain in one place more than a short time, for they were of a roving inclination and could not settle down.
8. West of the Andes the rainfall is considerable. In the Pampas the climate is dry.
West of the Andes the rainfall is considerable, but in the Pampas the climate is dry.

EXERCISE B. TRANSITIONS

Combine each pair of simple sentences to form a compound sentence without a conjunction but with a transitional adverb or phrase. Make sure that you express the exact shade of meaning, that you use the proper punctuation before and after the transitional word or words, and that you change the capitalization wherever necessary. Avoid using any transitional expression more than once. For a partial list of transitional words and phrases, see rule 5.5.

1. The roses are indeed beautiful. _____ I have seen finer ones.
2. The roses are indeed beautiful. _____ I have never seen finer ones.
3. The barometer is falling rapidly. _____ It will rain.
4. It did rain. _____ There was no picnic.
5. We now began to realize the danger of taking the cliff road after a rain. _____ We turned back.
6. He smiled in a sardonic, merciless way. _____ He lifted his gun and fired.
7. The sheriff fully understood the danger of entering the undergrowth. _____ He faced it without flinching.
8. The manager expects too much work of me. _____ He is gruff and unpleasant in giving instructions.
9. One must drive carefully in a city. _____ He will have an accident.
10. He is not a disagreeable person. _____ He is very courteous and obliging.
11. Mary will be away for three weeks. _____ So I was told by her brother.
12. There are many half-sunken logs in the stream. _____ It will be necessary to use much caution in paddling the canoe.

PRACTICE SHEET 9

Name.....

Date.....

CHAPTER 5. EXERCISE C. INDEPENDENT CLAUSES

You are to do three things: 1) Underline the verb of each independent clause; if a clause has a compound predicate, draw circles around the verbs. 2) Write S. at the left of each simple sentence and Cd. at the left of each compound sentence. 3) Punctuate the passages correctly without changing any words; though some sentences could be improved rhetorically, we are at present concerned only with correctness.

Cd.

1. He came slowly into the room and sat down, but I re-
mained standing.

Cd.

2. The roads to the hills will soon be free from mud; then
we can go there for picnics.

Cd.

3. I would follow no man more willingly, for I know his
real strength.

S

4. The influence of ancient pagan beliefs upon Christianity
has been enormous; nevertheless, many people do not
seem to be aware of the fact.

S

5. The man sitting at the extreme right is Ray Seaton,
my cousin.

Cd.

6. We had no lights on our car, so we began wondering
where to stop for the night.

Cd.

7. He is never satisfied with his lot; the grass always seems
greener in the next pasture.

Cd.

8. The first six years of my life were very lonely; for I
seldom had a playmate.

Cd.

9. Most life-boats are kept covered; so the first thing to do
is to take off the cover.

Cd.

10. I am studying to be an athletic coach; therefore, I am
majoring in Physical Education.

S

11. No one had offered to take me to dinner; so about six
o'clock I decided to look for a restaurant.

S

12. Miss Slater is rather plain but has intelligence and good
sense.

Cd.

13. I did not study much during my first month in college;
consequently, by the middle of the semester I was de-
linquent in nearly all my courses.

S

14. Our sight is the most perfect, and most delightful of all
our senses.

Ed.

15. Milton acquired the Puritans' contempt of external circumstances; their fortitude; their tranquillity and their inflexible resolution; but not the coolest skeptic or the most profane scoffer was more perfectly free from the contagion of their frantic delusions; their savage manners; their ludicrous jargon; their scorn of science; and their aversion to pleasure.—Macaulay.

5Ed.

16. The chief of the band, a sly old fox with malicious eyes, was talking excitedly to his warriors.

Ed.

17. I can never forgive his willful unkindness; and premeditated cruelty; I can never forget his sardonic smile and scathing epithets.

Ed.

18. We are enjoying glorious spring weather here; I am eager to see the flowers bloom; for I expect them to be somewhat different from the ones in the United States.

Ed.

19. Your theme is too indefinite; in fact, it does not seem to have any thought at all.

Ed.

20. Our friends very often conceal or soften our faults; our enemies; however, search out all our flaws and imperfections.

Ed.

21. To satisfy a claim for rent, an effort was recently made to sell at auction; the household goods; cow and chickens; of a widow living near Bangor, Maine; but the people of the community, by refusing to bid against her, made it possible for her to buy back her property for a few cents.

Ed.

22. Hale is studious; but dull; Whitney on the other hand is brilliant but careless.

23. Several weeks ago we engaged Mr. Seward as our book-keeper; and he has proved himself efficient; and conscientious.

EXERCISE D. PUNCTUATION OF THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

Write two sentences illustrating each of the following rules: 5.1, 5.4, and 5.5.
Write one sentence illustrating rule 5.3.

PRACTICE SHEET 12

.....Date.....

CHAPTER 6. EXERCISE C. SEQUENCE OF TENSES

In each sentence, choose between the forms in parentheses and write the correct one at the left.

has accepted
had
I had
was
replied
right
met
knew

1. He reports that he (accepted, has accepted) a position in the bank.
2. He reported that he (accepted, has accepted, had accepted) a position in the bank.
3. Doctor Jackson knew that I (have, had) neglected my work.
4. He insisted that I (am, was) wrong.
5. The ancients believed that the sun (revolves, revolved) around the earth.
6. He said that he (will, would) not go.
7. They have moved to Lincoln in order that they (may, might) send their children to the university.
8. He is moving to Arizona in the hope that the change in climate (may, might) benefit his health.
9. I am sure he said that Venus (is, was) nearer the sun than the earth (is, was).
10. He replied that he (walked, had walked) twenty miles before we met him.
11. I know that he (will, would) be glad to see you.
12. I knew that he (will, would) be glad to see you.
13. He said that you (shall, should) report at once.
14. He declared that he (knows, knew) nothing about the transactions.

Ed.

15. Milton acquired the Puritans' contempt of external circumstances; their fortitude; their tranquillity and their inflexible resolution; but not the coolest skeptic or the most profane scoffer was more perfectly free from the contagion of their frantic delusions; their savage manners; their ludicrous jargon; their scorn of science and their aversion to pleasure.—Macaulay.

5Ed.

16. The chief of the band, a sly old fox with malicious eyes, was talking excitedly to his warriors.

Ed.

17. I can never forgive his willful unkindness; and premeditated cruelty; I can never forget his sardonic smile and scathing epithets.

Ed.

18. We are enjoying glorious spring weather here; I am eager to see the flowers bloom; for I expect them to be somewhat different from the ones in the United States.

Ed.

19. Your theme is too indefinite; in fact, it does not seem to have any thought at all.

Ed.

20. Our friends very often conceal or soften our faults; our enemies, however, search out all our flaws and imperfections.

Ed.

21. To satisfy a claim for rent, an effort was recently made to sell at auction; the household goods; cow and chickens; of a widow living near Bangor, Maine; but the people of the community, by refusing to bid against her, made it possible for her to buy back her property for a few cents.

Ed.

22. Hale is studious; but dull; Whitney on the other hand is brilliant but careless.

23. Several weeks ago we engaged Mr. Seward as our book-keeper; and he has proved himself efficient; and conscientious.

EXERCISE D. PUNCTUATION OF THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

Write two sentences illustrating each of the following rules: 5.1, 5.4, and 5.5.
Write one sentence illustrating rule 5.3.

PRACTICE SHEET 12

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 6. EXERCISE C. SEQUENCE OF TENSES

In each sentence, choose between the forms in parentheses and write the correct one at the left.

1. He reports that he (accepted, has accepted) a position in the bank.
2. He reported that he (accepted, has accepted, had accepted) a position in the bank.
3. Doctor Jackson knew that I (have, had) neglected my work.
4. He insisted that I (am, was) wrong.
5. The ancients believed that the sun (revolves, revolved) around the earth.
6. He said that he (will, would) not go.
7. They have moved to Lincoln in order that they (may, might) send their children to the university.
8. He is moving to Arizona in the hope that the change in climate (may, might) benefit his health.
9. I am sure he said that Venus (is, was) nearer the sun than the earth (is, was).
10. He replied that he (walked, had walked) twenty miles before we met him.
11. I know that he (will, would) be glad to see you.
12. I knew that he (will, would) be glad to see you.
13. He said that you (shall, should) report at once.
14. He declared that he (knows, knew) nothing about the transactions.

A WRITER'S WORKBOOK

EXERCISE D. ERRORS IN TENSE

Correct any errors in tense. Place a *C.* before each passage that is right as it stands.

1. Suddenly a jar shakes the bicycle. I hurtle forward over the handle bars into space. Out of the corner of my eye I saw the bicycle tumble away.
2. Is it not logical to say that if this country survives for hundreds of years it would be as rich in tradition and art as Europe is today?
3. If more essays of this type were written and were brought to the attention of the undergraduate, they will stimulate him to set a higher goal for himself.
4. But the freshman hardly had time to give this answer before the upperclassmen try to show him the advantages of joining immediately.
5. The author has variety in his sentence structure, and his specificness and concreteness made the essay very clear.
6. He has bought the mortgage on his father's farm in order that the family might not lose the property entirely.
7. The weather is so hot that, although it is scarcely noon, the men working in the harvest fields are almost exhausted. If the sun would hide behind a cloud for a little while, how the relief would be welcomed! At last the dinner bell rang, and all rushed to the cook shack.

PRACTICE SHEET 13

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 6. EXERCISE E. *Shall—Will, Should—Would*

On each line at the left, write *shall, will, should* or *would* according to the requirement of the blank space of the corresponding sentence. The various meanings to be expressed are indicated by the material in parentheses, the words in quotation marks suggesting the direct forms of indirect quotations or similar constructions.

- | | |
|-------------------|---|
| <u>shall</u> | 1. I _____ be unable to go. (Expect to) |
| <u>will</u> | 2. He _____ leave for Columbia tomorrow. (Expects to) |
| <u>will</u> | 3. I _____ not go. Let that settle it. (Refuse to) |
| <u>will</u> | 4. I _____ see to it that the order is filled promptly. (Promise to) |
| <u>shall</u> | 5. You _____ do exactly as I say. (I insist that you do—) |
| <u> </u> | 6. The children _____ have Christmas gifts in spite of our poverty. (I am determined that—) |
| <u> </u> | 7. _____ you come, too, George? (Are you willing to—) |
| <u> </u> | 8. _____ the men begin work at once? (Do you want the men to—) |
| <u> </u> | 9. What _____ you have for dinner? (What do you wish—) |
| <u> </u> | 10. _____ you see Mary on your way home? (Expect to) |
| <u> </u> | 11. _____ Edward come, too? (Do you want Edward to—) |
| <u> </u> | 12. We _____ celebrate Founder's Day next week. (Expect to—) |
| <u> </u> | 13. _____ you come with me, please? (Are you willing to—) |
| <u> </u> | 14. A roommate _____ talk when one wants to study. (Persists in talking—) |
| <u> </u> | 15. He said he _____ go. ("I shall—") |
| <u> </u> | 16. We thought we _____ probably need our lanterns. ("We shall—") |

A WRITER'S WORKBOOK

17. The president repeated that he _____ come. ("I will—")
18. They said they _____ probably come. ("We shall—")
19. They said they _____ certainly come. ("We will—")
20. I thought I _____ probably succeed. ("I shall—")
21. I made up my mind that I _____ never do so again. ("I will—")
22. I know that he _____ be glad to hear from you. ("He will—")
23. I think they _____ like to come. ("They will—")
24. I _____ take a trip to Cuba next summer. (Expect to—)
25. He _____ have kept silent. (Ought to)
26. I _____ not talk so much myself. (Ought not to)
27. _____ America assume such a responsibility? (Ought to)
28. We _____ do justice to all. (Ought to)
29. I _____ like to attend the game.
30. I _____ that summer were here! (Wish that—)
31. The child _____ smile and smile. (Was accustomed to)
32. He _____ scratch his head from time to time. (Was accustomed to)
33. Even if it _____ rain, I should not be annoyed. (Let the auxiliary imply that there will probably be no rain.)
34. Alabama _____ win this game. (It is highly probable that Alabama will—)
35. We were afraid we _____ miss our train. ("We shall—")
36. If Father were here, James _____ soon learn better.

PRACTICE SHEET 14

me. Date.....

CHAPTER 7. EXERCISE A. NUMBER OF NOUNS

Write the plurals of the following.

hope	_____	Murphy	Murphys
fox	_____	alley	alleys
cry	cries	gulf	gulfs
donkey	donkeys	cameo	cameos
knife	knives	louse	lice
grief	griefs	sheaf	sheaves
potato	potatoes	Williams	Williamses
hero	heroes	thesis	theses
folio	folios	datum	datums
goose	geese	silo	silos
Frenchman	Frenchmen	cargo	cargoes
swine	swine	quiz	quizzes
oasis	oases	son-in-law	sons-in-law
runner-up	runners-up	bystander	bystanders
♂	males	turkey	turkeys
if	ifs	fiasco	fiascos
storeroom	storerooms	analysis	analyses
cupful	cupfuls	German	Germans
man-of-war	men-of-war	species	species
berry	berries	appendix	appendices

EXERCISE B. NUMBER OF PRONOUNS AND OF VERBS

You are to distinguish between or among the forms in parentheses and to write the correct ones on the lines at the left. See rules 7.13, 7.14, 7.15, 7.25, and 7.26.

1. Everyone should have (his, her, their) own checking account.
 a. his
 b. _____
2. Each student should bring (his, her, their) books.
 a. _____
 b. his
3. Every company ^a(has, have) ^b(its, their) distinctive method of advertising.
 a. has
 b. _____
4. Neither of them ^a(has, have) paid ^b(his, her, their) laboratory fees.
 a. _____
 b. _____
5. If either of the boys ^a(is, are) there, have ^b(him, them) explain the matter immediately.
 a. is
 b. him
6. He is one of those students who (thinks, think).
 a. thinks
 b. thinks
7. Each reporter is responsible for bringing in the news for ^a(his, their) ^b(beat, beats).
 a. his
 b. _____
8. I think anyone would find it well worth ^a(his, her, their) while to visit the smelter the next time ^b(he, she, they) ^c(is, are) in Pittsburgh.
 a. _____
 b. _____
 c. is
9. Many times we could do someone a kindness which would mean a great deal to (him, her, them).
 a. _____
 b. _____
10. She is the kind of girl who ^a(tries, try) to do ^b(his, her, their) duty.
 a. _____
 b. _____
11. Each side held tenaciously to ^a(its, their) point of view on the subject, neither being able to prove ^b(its, their) own or disprove ^c(its, their) opponents' theory.
 a. _____
 b. _____
 c. its

PRACTICE SHEET 15

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 7. EXERCISE C. AGREEMENT OF PRONOUN AND ANTECEDENT

Compose and bring to class five sentences illustrating the agreement of the pronoun and its antecedent.

EXERCISE D. AGREEMENT OF VERB WITH DELAYED SUBJECT

Make complete sentences of the following by adding in each instance a subject of the same number as that of the verb given. See rule 7.24.

1. There are _____

2. Here is _____

3. There has been _____

4. By the side of the road stands _____

5. There have been _____

6. There was _____

7. On the shelf were _____

8. In the cradle sleeps _____

9. At the table is sitting _____

10. There goes _____

11. Here are _____

There is _____

Has there been _____

EXERCISE E. AGREEMENT OF VERB

You are to distinguish between the forms in parentheses and to write the correct words on the lines at the left.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <u> </u>
<u>was</u>
<u>was</u>
<u>was</u>
<u> </u> | 1. The instructor, as well as the students, (was, were) glad to have a vacation.
2. The president of the company, with his entire party, (was, were) on board.
3. Everybody, down to the very janitors, (was, were) pleased.
4. A tomahawk and a spear, together with some arrow heads, (was, were) found.
5. Senator Harker, accompanied by his wife and sons, (is, are) on his way to Washington, D. C. |
|--|---|

EXERCISE F. AGREEMENT OF VERB

Bring to class five original sentences in which nouns or pronouns are linked to the subject by means of such expressions as *including*, *accompanied by*, *with*, *together with*, and *as well as*. Use subjects in the third person and verbs in the present or present perfect tenses. The verb *to be* may be used in the past tense, as in Exercise D.

PRACTICE SHEET 17

Name Date

CHAPTER 8. EXERCISE A. SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT AND DIRECT OBJECT

Classify the italicized words as follows: Predicate Substantive (P.S.), Predicate Adjective (P.A.), Direct Object (D.O.).

- _____ 1. Paderewski is a Polish *pianist*.
- _____ 2. Brahms wrote four great *symphonies*.
- _____ 3. The turkey certainly tasted *good*.
- _____ 4. I began the *study* of French last year.
- _____ 5. In 1920 the Democrats nominated *James Cox* for the Presidency.
- _____ 6. Roosevelt became *President* after the assassination of McKinley.
- _____ 7. The longest reign in English history was *that* of Queen Victoria.
- _____ 8. She was *queen* for sixty-four years.
- _____ 9. She was only eighteen years *old* at the time of her accession.
- _____ 10. She married *Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha* in 1840.
- _____ 11. That note sounded *flat*.
- _____ 12. The three most famous English poets are *Shakespeare*, *Milton*, and *Chaucer*.
- _____ 13. Judge Hohl yesterday fined *himself* for speeding.

EXERCISE B. SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT, DIRECT OBJECT, AND INDIRECT OBJECT

Classify the italicized substantives according to function: Subjective Complement (S.C.), Direct Object (D.O.), Indirect Object (I.O.).

- a. _____ b. _____ 1. He told *me* a *lie*.
- a. _____ b. _____ 2. The teacher assigned *us* an easy *lesson* for next time.

- _____ 3. The greatest poet of German literature is *Goethe*.
- a. _____ b. _____ 4. I am reading the ^a*novels* and the ^b*plays* of Galsworthy.
- a. _____ b. _____ 5. I sold ^a*her* three gowns and a fur ^b*coat*.
- a. _____ b. _____ 6. She gave ^a*me* a worthless ^b*check* in payment.
- a. _____ b. _____ 7. I mailed my ^a*mother* a Christmas ^b*present* yesterday.
- _____ 8. Edison was a great *benefactor* of mankind.
- a. _____ b. _____ 9. My uncle brought my ^a*cousin* and ^b*me* two large tiger ^c*skins*.
- c. _____
- a. _____ b. _____ 10. Her father, traveling in China, has sent ^a*her* a exquisitely carved ^b*necklace* of ivory.
- _____ 11. Two thousand dollars seems a big *price* for that manuscript.
- _____ 12. Stradivari was a noted *violin-maker* of the eighteenth century.
- a. _____ b. _____ 13. Please bring ^a*me* my ^b*pen* and my ^c*notebook*.
- c. _____
- a. _____ b. _____ 14. The speakers were ^a*Doctor Robinson* and ^b*Senator Burr*.
- a. _____ b. _____ 15. Mr. Dickinson had been ^a*president* for several years but at that time was ^b*secretary*.
- a. _____ b. _____ 16. His brother will probably be ^a*center* and ^b*captain* of the team next year.
- a. _____ b. _____ 17. I must write ^a*Mother* a ^b*letter* and send ^c*her* some ^d*flowers*.
- c. _____ d. _____
- a. _____ b. _____ 18. Did you see ^a*her* and ^b*Jack* at the theater?
- a. _____ b. _____ 19. Two famous Irish dramatists are ^a*Synge* and ^b*Lady Gregory*.

PRACTICE SHEET 19

Date... 12.12.1943

CHAPTER 8. EXERCISE D. FUNCTIONS OF THE SUBSTANTIVE

The following sentences contain, in addition to the functions called for in Exercise C, examples of the objective complement (O.C.), the nominative of address (N.A.), and subject (S.). List all the nouns and pronouns, filling the left-hand column first; after each substantive, write its function in the sentence. Punctuate the nominatives of address.

1. diploma-S. trunk-O.P.
Dean C.-N.A.
2. David, the second king of Israel,
was a remarkable organizer.
3. In 1931 floods did much damage
in the great central plains of
China.
4. In Hankow, "Chicago of China,"
150,000 people died from the
disaster.
5. The American Red Cross sent
China a hundred thousand dol-
lars.
6. He called me a liar.
7. Have you any report Mr. Smith?
8. Washington appointed Thomas
Jefferson Secretary of State.
9. Mr. Chairman I rise to a point
of order.

10. Frank Harris - S author, editor and critic - P died in Nice, a city in southern France.
11. The American black bear - S was an object of superstitious reverence to the Indians.
12. The grizzly bear - S is probably the strongest native animal of America.
13. Kindly ship me twenty crates of eggs.
14. Thor, the god of thunder - S was the son of Odin, the chief Germanic deity.
15. The manufacture of automobiles - S has become a leading industry.
16. The stately swan - S is a bird of great grace and beauty.

EXERCISE E. FUNCTIONS OF THE SUBSTANTIVE

Write two examples of each of the following: subjective complement (one *nov* and one adjective), direct object, indirect object, objective complement (one *nov* and one adjective), appositive, nominative of address.

PRACTICE SHEET 21

Name John C. Hill Date Nov. 15th 1943

CHAPTER 9. EXERCISE C. CASE OF PRONOUNS

Directions: You are to distinguish between the forms in parentheses and to write the correct ones in the second column from the left. In the first column at the left, you are to indicate the construction of each pronoun in question (*S.*, *D.O.*, *S.C.*, *Poss. Pr.*, *it is*, and so forth.)

1. (Who, Whom) is coming? S. I
2. (Who, Whom) are you going to see? D.O. Whom
3. (Who, Whom) did you give the book to? S.P. I
4. If I were (he, him), I would accept the offer. S.C. he
5. It was (she, her) who made the mistake. S.C. she
6. Only (we, us) four were invited. S. we
7. Four of (we, us) boys failed in the test. O.T. us
8. Were you and (he, him) playing on the same team? S. he
9. It was (I, me) whom you struck. S.C. I
10. Will you meet Henry and (I, me) at the library? D.O. me
11. With John and (she, her) rode my three sisters. O.T. she
12. All except you and (I, me) were initiated last night. S.P. me
13. (Who's, Whose) the man sitting at the left of the toastmaster? S. Who's
14. (Its, It's) Mr. Lang, the president of the Chamber of Commerce. S. Its
15. He still thinks it was (I, me) who telephoned. I
16. It might be (we, us) whom the manager intends to lay off. S.C. we

O.P. me

17. Players like Bill and (I, me) can easily make the team.

Agg me

18. The committee consisted of three seniors: Channing, Holton, and (I, me).

Agg me

19. The president of the Associated Students appointed three seniors on the committee: Channing, Holton, and (I, me).

Agg I

20. Three seniors were on the committee: Channing, Holton, and (I, me).

O.P. me

21. All the reports were typed by Miss Beck and (I, me).

O.P. me

22. Miss Martin, please assist Miss Beck and (I, me) with the typing of these letters.

O.P. I

23. (They, Them) that do their work faithfully, he will reward.

O.C. I

24. The guests will be Mr. Vales, Miss Baker, Miss Hite, and (I, me).

I

25. (Who's, Whose) turn is it next?

I

26. The car turned over on (its, it's) side.

I

27. He has decided not to invite Tompkins and (I, me).

I

28. She sent my brother and (I, me) a delicious cake.

I

29. (Who's, Whose) that girl with Collins tonight?

O.C. I

30. The ends will probably be Reynolds and (I, me).

I

31. Did you know it was (we, us)?

I

32. The proprietor gave (we, us) fellows an extra day of vacation.

I

33. The guests of honor—Hay, Morrow, and (I, me)—will be asked to speak.

PRACTICE SHEET 23

Name

K. E. Ledell

Date

Oct 25, 1944

CHAPTER 10. EXERCISE E. CHANGE OF SIMPLE SENTENCE TO ADJECTIVE CLAUSE

Form a complex sentence of each of the following passages by reducing one of the simple sentences to an adjective clause. Be careful to punctuate properly and to alter capitalization wherever a change is necessary.

1. A certain Mr. Joyce, now moved back to my home town, ^{whom} I had known ~~him~~ for many years,

2. Warren G. Harding became President of the United States in 1921.
Warren G. Harding became President of the U.S. in 1921.
He died two years later.

who died two years later.

3. Mr. and Mrs. C. H. Powers have been visiting friends in this city.

Mr. and Mrs. C. H. Powers have been visiting friends in this city.
They returned to their home in Louisville yesterday.
city were returned to their home in Louisville.

4. I am very fond of my tutor. He once risked his life to save me from

I am very fond of my tutor, who once risked his life to save me from drowning.

near drowning.

5. The girls of wealth ^{who} were sent to finishing schools. There they were

taught the social accomplishments.

6. Oliver Cromwell engaged in a victorious foreign war against the

Oliver Cromwell engaged in a victorious foreign war against the Dutch. They had become dangerous commercial rivals of England!
Dutch, who had become dangerous commercial rivals.

7. Napoleon hastened back to Paris. In Paris he misrepresented the

Napoleon hastened back to Paris where he misrepresented the state of affairs in regard to the disastrous Russian campaign.
state of affairs in regard to the disastrous Russian

EXERCISE F. PUNCTUATION OF ADJECTIVE MODIFIERS

Punctuate the following sentences in accordance with rules 10.1-10.12, 1.4, 5.4, and 5.5. In the left margin, write the numbers of the rules which you apply.

1. Students who expect to receive degrees next June are asked to make application before March 1.
2. Able-bodied men who were unwilling to work were not given county help.
3. Raymond White who was stricken with apoplexy yesterday morning is reported to be sinking rapidly.
4. Her brother Henry will be married next June to Miss Hazel Overstreet daughter of a wealthy lumberman.
5. Mr. Kling was a brother of L. A. Kling former resident of Keokuk who died in 1930.
6. Several stuffed animals a deer a moose and two mountain goats seemed to come to life in their fixed positions along the walls.
7. My roommate has two absorbing interests music and literature.
8. Some of the companies such as the American Telephone and Telegraph Company apportioned the available work among the full force of employees other firms used the old method of laying off men as fast as the volume of business decreased.
9. Several great writers Goethe for example kept their creative powers until a ripe old age.
10. Much of our knowledge of the making and the use of vaccine is due to two scientists of the last century namely Louis Pasteur a Frenchman and Robert Koch a German.
11. In 1932 the leading presidential candidates Herbert Hoover Franklin D. Roosevelt and Norman Thomas were all college graduates.
12. Tall and handsome he makes a very favorable impression upon new acquaintances.
13. College education should develop the student's sense of responsibility that is he should be taught to rely upon himself.
14. Three young scientists namely Loeffler Roux and Behring studied the cause and the prevention of diphtheria.
15. America has great respect for her early statesmen such as Benjamin Franklin Thomas Jefferson and George Washington.
16. The following students will compose the debate team Howard Comstock Willis Sleet and Arthur Hawkins.
17. Cheap soaps and creams contain free alkali which destroys the smoothness of the skin.

PRACTICE SHEET 24

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 10. EXERCISE G. CASE OF RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

You are to distinguish between the forms in parentheses and to write the correct ones on the lines at the left.

- _____ 1. The mob was led by the sheriff himself, (~~who~~, whom) I should describe as half-crazy.
- _____ 2. Among those Frank met at the convention was a young man (~~who~~, whom) he is now greatly indebted to.
- _____ 3. The elder Mr. Brown, (who, ~~whom~~) I think may be surely trusted, came in to see me this morning.
- _____ 4. Is there any man or woman (~~who~~, whom), as the prosecuting attorney asserted, could be guilty of such a crime?
- _____ 5. (Who, ~~Whom~~) do you think will receive the prize?
- _____ 6. (Who, ~~Whom~~) do you think it was?
- _____ 7. (~~Who~~, Whom) did you say I should see about the matter?
- _____ 8. (Who, ~~Whom~~) did you say was coming?
- _____ 9. (Who, ~~Whom~~) do you think had the audacity to suggest such a thing?
- _____ 10. This is the man (~~who~~, whom) I relied on.
- _____ 11. Is he the sort of person (~~who~~, whom) one needs to watch?

EXERCISE H. REVIEW OF ADJECTIVE MODIFIERS

The adjective modifiers at the left are taken from the passage at the right. Classify them according to kind, and specify the words modified. Use *Adj.* for adjectives, *App.* for appositives, *Adj. N.* for adjective nouns (including possessive nouns), *Poss. Pr.* for possessive pronouns, *Adj. Ph.* for adjective phrases, and *Adj. Cl.* for adjective clauses. Add punctuation wherever essential.

<i>Adjective Modifier</i>	<i>Kind</i>	<i>Word Modified</i>
1) the	<u>Adj.</u>	<u>Century</u>
1) fourteenth	_____	_____
1) of fashionable women	_____	_____
2) writer	_____	_____
2) of a church steeple	_____	_____
2) church	_____	_____
3) immense	_____	_____
3) her	_____	_____
3) who was a mere pigmy	_____	_____
4) monk	_____	_____
4) ridiculous	_____	_____
5) of his sermon	_____	_____
5) his	_____	_____
5) who wore high head-dresses	_____	_____
6) popular	_____	_____
6) who continued the fad	_____	_____
7) monk's	_____	_____
7) which he had condemned	_____	_____

1) In the fourteenth century, the headdress of fashionable women was very extravagant. 2) According to Paradin a French writer it rose several feet above the head and had the shape of a church steeple. 3) Upon adding the immense tower to her stature, a woman who was a mere pigmy looked like a giantess. 4) Thomas Conecte a famous monk preached against the ridiculous fashion. 5) In the middle of his sermon many of the ladies who wore high headdresses cast them into a bonfire. 6) Popular indignation was aroused and the rabble even threw stones at persons who continued the fad. 7) Soon after the monk's departure however the custom which he had condemned was revived.¹

¹ Adapted from the *Spectator*. No. 98.

Name.....*J. J.*.....Date.....*25.87*.....

Underline adverbial clauses. Indicate at the left the relationship expressed by each adverbial clause (place, time, manner, and so forth).

- ### EXERCISE B. CONJUNCTIONS AND COMPARISONS

You are to distinguish between or among the forms in parentheses and to write the correct ones on the lines at the left.

1. Do this (as, like) I told you to do it.
2. You are a better player than (he, him).
3. The picnic will be held next Saturday (providing, provided) that the weather is good.

4. I am not (as, so) clever as (she, her).
5. You are (as, so) foolish as (he, him).
6. No one is better qualified to pass judgment in this matter than (we, us).
7. Roberts took first in the 100-yard dash, Paley placed second in the javelin throw, (while, whereas, though, and) Jacobs tied for third in the pole vault.
8. (While, Though, Whereas) he has sufficient scholastic ability, he neglects his studies.
9. A person can not achieve success (without, unless) making an effort.
10. A person can not achieve success (without, unless) he makes an effort.
11. (While, Whereas, Although) they do not plan long hops over the water, the journey is not without perils.
12. I felt just (like, as, as if) I did when I was ten years old and had to make a presentation speech.
13. The football game was won by the State College, (while, whereas, though, and, but) the track meet went to the University.
14. She looks (like, as) a Norwegian.
15. I won't go (without, unless) you go with me.
16. I will accept the chairmanship, (providing, provided) that I may have Ted Smith on the committee.
17. (While, Though, Whereas) you are sewing, let me read to you.
18. He acts (like, as, as if) he had been injured.
19. He is taller than (I, me), but he looks very much like (I, me).
20. Miss Jordan felt (like, that, as if) she had been poisoned.
21. Alfred wanted to go fishing on Saturday, (while, whereas, but, and) his wife wanted him to stay at home with the children.

PRACTICE SHEET 26

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 11. EXERCISE C. CONJUNCTIONS AND COMPARISONS

Distinguish between or among the words in parentheses, and write the correct ones on the lines at the left.

- _____ 22. We are willing to reinstate him, (providing, provided) that you will supervise his study for a month.
- _____ 23. He is not (as, so) good a player as his brother.
- _____ 24. It is said that water freezes every night of the year at Alto Curcero, Bolivia, (while, whereas) at noon the sun is hot enough to blister the skin.
- _____ 25. Miss Hinton played a violin solo, (while, and, whereas) Mr. Wilson read a cutting from Shakespeare's *Merchant of Venice*.
- _____ 26. At each trip of the saw a board falls off the log, being sliced (like, as) Mother cuts bread.
- _____ 27. He runs (like, as) a deer.
- _____ 28. He is less conscientious than (I, me).
- _____ 29. She is not nearly (as, so) beautiful as she thinks she is.
- _____ 30. I can not make high grades (without, unless) studying hard.
- _____ 31. You seem to help Herman more than (I, me).
- _____ 32. (While, Whereas, Though) I was in the bank, my car was taken.
- _____ 33. (While, Whereas, Though) it is too early to make a definite announcement, gastric mucin will probably play an important part hereafter in the treatment of ulcers.
- _____ 34. Edwin Hart was the best man, (while, whereas, though, and, but) Lucille Collier was the bridesmaid.

EXERCISE D. CORRECTION OF FAULTY SENTENCES

Revise the sentences which contain errors or which are lacking in clearness. If you find a correct sentence, place *C.* before it.

1. You love her better than me.
2. I was so surprised.
3. Some editorial writers praised the President's message highly, others expressed mild disappointment, while still others condemned it in vigorous terms.
4. He is such a disagreeable person.
5. His theme was the best of all the others in the class.
6. His theme was better than any of his classmates.
7. Foster is as good, if not a better tennis player than Graham.
8. He is one of the best, if not the best player on the campus.
9. The sewing machine is one of the most useful and has saved more of the housewife's time than any other piece of machinery.
10. He was as old as any other man in the community, if not older.
11. I felt like a fool.
12. Rowley covered himself with glory at tackle, while Scott made much yardage on line plays.
13. New Orleans is larger than any city in the state of Louisiana.
14. He looked like he had been killed.

PRACTICE SHEET 27

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 11. EXERCISE E. POSITION OF ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

Write three sentences with adverbial clauses at the beginning and three with adverbial clauses at the end. Be sure to punctuate correctly.

EXERCISE F. PUNCTUATION OF RESTRICTIVE AND NON-RESTRICTIVE ELEMENTS

Punctuate the following sentences. See Chapter 10, § C, and Chapter 11, § C.

1. Doctor E. J. Shoemaker who has been appointed Professor of Anatomy will begin his duties next September.
2. Three may keep a secret if two of them are dead.
3. We passed down the corridor to the visiting room where prisoners may talk to their families through a heavy wire netting. [Let the punctuation indicate that there is but one visiting room.]
4. Jack London author of *The Call of the Wild* had a very adventurous life before he started writing.
5. George W. Russell Irish poet painter philosopher and agricultural economist was on our campus in the winter of 1930-31.
6. I have been reading the plays of three Irish dramatists Yeats Synge and Lady Gregory.
7. James Stevens is the man who has published a volume of short stories about Paul Bunyan the legendary hero of the lumberjacks.
8. O. Henry whose real name was Sidney Porter wrote more than two hundred short stories many of which are still popular.
9. Lord Jim unemotional sensible brave quite sure of his capabilities failed to perform his duties when he was compelled to face the "acid test."
10. The story is told by Captain Marlow a retired seaman who took a great interest in Jim.
11. He treats me as if I were a child.
12. America has one distinguished playwright Eugene O'Neill.
13. Name the four incidents which you consider the most dramatic in the story.
14. Although the story takes place on land it is really a sea story for its leading character is a seaman and its center of interest is the events which are taking place on the sea.

15. At the battle of Hastings in 1066 William the Conqueror defeated Harold the Fair the last of the Anglo-Saxon kings.
16. The method of telling the story is rather complicated so that I had to be constantly alert.
17. Scott's novel *Kenilworth* is based upon the story of Queen Elizabeth and the Earl of Leicester. [Remember that Scott wrote many novels.]
18. I shall go to Europe with you next summer provided that my father does not withdraw his consent.
19. Come as soon as you can.
20. Woodrow Wilson who became President in 1913 served two terms.
21. My Uncle John is a judge.
22. We studied the following plays of Shakespeare intensively *Hamlet Othello Twelfth Night* and *Cymbeline*.
23. *Beowulf* a famous Old English poem deals with the slaying of three monsters.
24. Look before you leap.
25. Many members of the faculty such as Dean Taylor and Doctor Gilman favor the new plan.
26. He drove across the railroad track at a high speed although I had frequently cautioned him to be careful.
27. A gasoline flame burns at 1,500 degrees Fahrenheit whereas burning sugar creates a temperature of only 700 degrees.
28. The current was so strong that we could hardly row against it.
29. Texas is over two hundred times as large as Rhode Island.
30. England is slightly smaller than Illinois.
31. Every effort should be made to protect the forests because the value of the trees greatly exceeds the cost of saving them. [Let the punctuation stress the statement in the main clause.]
32. There would be a different spirit on the campus if we had leaders who represented the student body as a whole.
33. If anyone who is not of the special clique is nominated the session is held up until that person declines.
34. Patrols are kept there until the fire is completely out.
35. This is a book which can not be read hurriedly because the author has a very unusual and complicated method.
36. The Treaty of Versailles deprived Germany of some of her most valuable territory so that several important industries which depended upon the coal and iron of these sections were seriously handicapped.
37. He was so weak that he spent most of his time in bed.

PRACTICE SHEET 28

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 12. EXERCISE A. RECOGNITION OF THE NOUN CLAUSE

Underscore the noun clauses. At the left, indicate the function of each noun clause, designating a subject of the main verb by *S.*, a delayed subject by *D.S.*, a subjective complement by *S.C.*, a direct object by *D.O.*, an object of a preposition by *O.P.*, and an appositive by *App.* Add marks of punctuation wherever they are essential.

- _____ 1. Gilbert K. Chesterton said that American villages are eyesores to anyone of European tradition and instinct.
- _____ 2. He was wondering how he might earn more money.
- _____ 3. I was not clear as to what the directions meant.
- _____ 4. There was no argument about who played the better game of tennis.
- _____ 5. Unemployed men in New York sold apples to whoever would buy them.
- _____ 6. That is the car which we just passed.
- _____ 7. What is done in haste may be regretted in leisure.
- _____ 8. I hastily asked what he meant.
- _____ 9. They quickly saw the truth—that they would not reach home that night.
- _____ 10. I could ascertain nothing about who was elected.
- _____ 11. He replied that he did not know you.
- _____ 12. That door was opened purely by accident.
- _____ 13. That the car might be stolen was the greatest of our fears.
- _____ 14. I judged from what I knew of him that he would do the work well.
- _____ 15. One of his peculiar beliefs is that the earth is flat.
- _____ 16. It is not true that I voted against you.
- _____ 17. My prediction is that Tulane will win the game.

EXERCISE B. FUNCTIONS OF THE NOUN CLAUSE

Write sentences with noun clauses illustrating each of the six functions listed in Chapter 12, § A.

EXERCISE C. PUNCTUATION

Punctuate the following material in accordance with Chapter 12, § B.

1. The fact that he has been dishonest once makes it hard for him to secure another position.
2. Your second recommendation that we engage an efficiency expert seems a very good one.
3. He replied "My decision is final."
4. He replied that his decision was final.
5. "I will do no such thing" snapped his wife "I forbid you to mention the subject again."
6. Nearly two centuries ago Samuel Johnson wrote as follows "Every old man complains of the growing depravity . . . of the rising generation. He recounts the decency and regularity of former times, and celebrates the discipline and sobriety of the age in which his youth was passed."
7. She asked when you would leave for Lansing.
8. My opinion is that we should not send a delegate.

EXERCISE D. CASE OF PRONOUNS IN NOUN CLAUSES

You are to distinguish between the forms in parentheses and to write the correct ones on the lines at the left.

- | | |
|-------|---|
| _____ | 1. (Whoever, Whomever) you consider capable will receive the appointment. |
| _____ | 2. He aided (whoever, whomever) applied to him for help. |
| _____ | 3. The news item told (who, whom) it was that won the case. |
| _____ | 4. (Whoever, Whomever) has confidence in himself is likely to succeed. |
| _____ | 5. I will support (whoever, whomever) is nominated by this convention. |
| _____ | 6. I could find out nothing about (who, whom) is coming tonight. |

PRACTICE SHEET 29

Name R. K. K. Date Oct 29

CHAPTER 12. EXERCISE E. CONJUNCTIONS WITH NOUN CLAUSES

Distinguish between the words in parentheses, and write the correct ones on the lines at the left.

- that 1. The reason I took this course is (because, that) I need practice in public speaking.
- where 2. I read in the paper (that, where) the price of wheat has gone up two cents a bushel.
- because 3. (Because, The fact that) football has been a success in college is not a valid reason for abolishing it.
- that 4. The reason he sought United States citizenship is (because, that) his wife and children are Americans.
- because 5. One of the chief reasons Old Faithful is the most famous geyser in the world is (that, because) its eruptions are regular.
- where 6. I notice (that, where) Indiana won again yesterday.
- because 7. We lost the game (because, that) we were not in good condition.
- that 8. (Because, The fact that) you tricked me once does not mean that you can do it again.
- that 9. The reason I declined his invitation was (that, because) I had to be out of the city.

EXERCISE F. CORRECTION OF FAULTY SENTENCES

Revise the incorrect sentences. If you find a sentence that is right, place a C. before it.

1. A compound sentence is ~~when~~ there are two or more independent clauses.
2. A peninsula is ~~where~~ land ~~is~~ nearly surrounded by water.
3. He favors whoever flatters him.
4. ~~Because~~ you are a football player does not exempt you from doing the work required of this class.
5. A realistic story is ~~where~~ the author presents life as it really is.
6. A hemorrhage is ~~when~~ blood ~~is~~ discharged from wounded or ruptured blood vessels.
7. Grandma Powers was a friend to ~~whomever~~ needed help.
8. Whoever needed help found a friend in Grandma Powers.
9. I do not know with ~~who~~ she went.
10. A triangle is ~~when~~ a figure has three sides.
11. I see ~~where~~ a cold wave is sweeping over the New England states.
12. The reason Bryan resigned the office of Secretary of State in 1915 was ~~because~~ he disagreed with Wilson's foreign policy.
13. We withdrew from membership because the dues were increased.
14. The reason I went home was ~~because~~ I was sick.

PRACTICE SHEET 30

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 13. EXERCISE A. POSITION OF MODIFIERS

Revise the sentences in which modifiers are not placed properly. If you find a correct sentence, write C. before it.

1. We set our lunch pails upon the parlor furnace to heat promptly at eleven-thirty every morning.
2. We didn't even wait to eat.
3. Efforts should be made to keep as many people employed at all times as possible.
4. Some students go through hardships and sacrifices to get the knowledge in preparation for life which college has to offer.
5. Hundreds of men may work for weeks on a set which will only appear in a picture once or twice.
6. Working in machine shops during the summer, I practically learned every detail of the trade.
7. You should at least pay a half of my expenses; a fourth is not enough.
8. Mrs. Bruce Simpson is convalescing as rapidly as can be expected under the care of Dr. Ira Widman.
9. This job only lasted eight weeks.
10. He is so devoted to his mother that he would do practically anything for her.

11. He was closeted with the private American bankers who are supporting the loan for half an hour.
12. He had announced his intention of resigning from office two days before his death.
13. Bernik only has pangs of remorse when he begins to feel insecure.
14. A person is only young once.
15. Mr. Jasper looked up as his nephew entered and smiled. [Make it clear that Mr. Jasper did the smiling.]
16. The crowd that had gathered quickly dispersed. [Make it clear that *quickly* modifies *dispersed*.]
17. The present freshman team is the only one since that memorable first-year squad composed of Schwartz, Hein, Ellingsen, Lainhart, and others that has gone through the season undefeated.
18. We happened to meet a man who seemed to know you well and asked the way to your house. [Make it clear that we did the asking.]
19. Mrs. Brown will introduce a resolution protesting against the sale of cigarettes to minors at the next meeting of the Lincoln County W.C.T.U.
20. I found more than a hundred love letters that had been written to my great-great-grandmother in an old trunk.
21. He rejected the girl to whom he was engaged at the slightest pretext because she lost her dowry.

PRACTICE SHEET 31

Name Date

CHAPTER 13. EXERCISE B. REVIEW OF MODIFIERS

At the left is a list of modifiers taken from the passage at the right. Classify the elements as to kind, and indicate the function of each. For kind, specify whether the modifier is an adjective (*Adj.*), an adverb (*Adv.*), a noun (*N.*), a possessive pronoun (*Poss. Pr.*), a prepositional phrase (*Pk.*), or a clause (*Cl.*). For function, state whether it is adjectival (*Adj'l*) or adverbial (*Adv'l*), and designate the word or words modified. Add punctuation wherever it is essential.

<i>Modifier</i>	<i>Kind</i>	<i>Adj'l or Adv'l</i>	<i>Word Modified</i>
1) important	_____	_____	_____
1) by improved methods of arti- ficial illumination	_____	_____	_____
1) of artificial illu- mination	_____	_____	_____
1) artificial	_____	_____	_____
2) in the Middle Ages	_____	_____	_____
2) much	_____	_____	_____
2) than it is now	_____	_____	_____
2) now	_____	_____	_____
3) Our	_____	_____	_____
3) already	_____	_____	_____
3) fast	_____	_____	_____
3) at the time	_____	_____	_____
3) when we leave our homes for a movie or a dance	_____	_____	_____
4) Inasmuch as we have thrown busi- ness and pleasure into the period of rest and greatly shortened the nat- ural night	_____	_____	_____
			1) Important so- cial changes have been brought about by improved methods of artificial illumination. 2) For instance in the Mid- dle Ages bed-time was much earlier than it is now. 3) Our ancestors were already fast asleep at the time when we leave our homes for a movie or a dance. 4) Inasmuch as we have thrown busi- ness and pleasure into the period of

<i>Modifier</i>	<i>Kind</i>	<i>Adj'l or Adv'l</i>	<i>Word Modified</i>
4) into the period of rest	_____	_____	_____ rest and greatly
4) of rest	_____	_____	shortened the nat-
4) greatly	_____	_____	ural night we must
4) natural	_____	_____	ordinarily use for
4) for sleep	_____	_____	sleep several hours of
4) of broad daylight	_____	_____	broad daylight in the
5) probably	_____	_____	morning. 5) In fact
5) this	_____	_____	there are probably
5) who have never seen the sun rise	_____	_____	many people in this
5) never	_____	_____	country who have
6) In the animal kingdom	_____	_____	never seen the sun
6) animal	_____	_____	rise. 6) In the ani-
6) not	_____	_____	mal kingdom the
6) thus	_____	_____	course of nature has
7) as . . . as they formerly did	_____	_____	not been thus dis-
7) formerly	_____	_____	torted. 7) The birds
7) at his usual hour	_____	_____	sing as early as they
7) his	_____	_____	formerly did and the
8) If the present tendency continues a thousand years longer	_____	_____	cock begins to crow at his usual hour.
8) years	_____	_____	8) If the present
8) thousand	_____	_____	tendency continues
8) longer	_____	_____	a thousand years
8) all	_____	_____	longer humanity
8) night	_____	_____	may wake all night
8) by day	_____	_____	and sleep by day. ¹

¹ Altered from the *Teller*, No. 263.

,

Name J. J. J. Date Dec-1/11

Doc-1111

CHAPTER 13. EXERCISE C. REVIEW OF SUBSTANTIVES AND MODIFIERS

Classify each underscored element. In the first column, name its kind—noun (*N.*), pronoun (*Pr.*), adjective (*Adj.*), adverb (*Adv.*), phrase (*Ph.*), dependent clause (*Dep. Cl.*). In the second column, name its function—subject (*S.*), direct object (*D.O.*), indirect object (*I.O.*), object of a preposition (*O.P.*), objective complement (*O.C.*), subjective complement (*S.C.*), appositive (*App.*), adjective modifier (*Adj. Mod.*), adverbial modifier (*Adv. Mod.*). In the case of modifiers, indicate the word or words modified. Punctuate wherever necessary.

Function

Adv. Mod.

- 1) a. Ph. "knew"
 b.
 2) a.
 b.
 c.
 3) a.
 b.
 4) a.
 b.
 5) a.
 b.
 c.
 d.
 6) a.
 b.
 c.
 d.
1. I saw ^aby his trembling hands
 ^bthat he was alarmed by the sound.
 2. Captain Andrée. ^aleader of an
 ^bArctic expedition in 1897, believed
 ^cthat his balloon might stay in the
 air for six weeks.
 3. It is apparent however ^athat the
 bag was forced ^bdown after two
 days.
 4. ^aWhat actually happened ^bto the
 expedition may never be known.
 5. An entry ^ain ^bAndrée's diary shows
 ^cthat at least he was alive ^aeight
 weeks after the expedition had
 started.
 6. The bodies were brought ^ahome by
 the *Svenskund* the Swedish ^bgun-
 boat ^cwhich had taken Andrée and
 his men ^ato Spitzbergen thirty-three
 years before.

- | <i>Kind</i> | <i>Function</i> | |
|-------------------|-----------------|---|
| 7) a. _____ | <u>K, C</u> | 7. The publication of Andrée's diary |
| b. <u>L</u> | <u>1</u> | will probably give ^a us more ^b in- |
| c. <u>J</u> | <u>2</u> | formation ^c concerning the tragedy |
| d. _____ | | ^d than we have now. |
| 8) a. _____ | | 8. The fact ^a that hundreds of lan- |
| b. _____ | | guages are spoken in India makes a |
| c. _____ | | central ^b government very ^c difficult, |
| 9) a. _____ | | 9. ^a In some parts of India it is believed |
| b. <u>not</u> | <u>2</u> | ^b that the very shadow of an "un- |
| c. <u>L</u> | | touchable" creates ^c pollution. |
| 10) a. <u>one</u> | | 10. ^a If ^b one would pass judgment upon |
| b. _____ | | British rule in India he should |
| c. _____ | | understand the complicated ^c struc- |
| d. _____ | | ture ^d of Hindu society. |
| 11) a. <u>a</u> | <u>2</u> | 11. The lion the ^a king of beasts is a |
| b. _____ | | ^b member of the ^c cat family. |
| c. _____ | | |
| 12) a. <u>it</u> | <u>2</u> | 12. ^a At the present time ^b it is found |
| b. _____ | | only ^c in a small portion of Asia and |
| c. <u>L</u> | | in the regions of Africa ^d where it |
| d. _____ | | has not been exterminated. |
| 13) a. _____ | | 13. ^a Although the evidence is ^b not |
| b. _____ | | decisive the belief is ^c that the lion |
| c. _____ | | existed in Greece at the time of |
| d. _____ | | ^d Herodotus. |
| 14) a. _____ | | 14. According to ^a report Pompey ^b once |
| b. _____ | | caused ^c six hundred lions to be ex- |
| c. _____ | | hibited and destroyed ^d in the |
| d. _____ | | Roman amphitheater. |

PRACTICE SHEET 33

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 13. EXERCISE D. REVIEW OF THE PUNCTUATION OF CLAUSES

In the first column put *S.* before each simple sentence, *Cd* before each compound sentence, *Cx.* before each complex sentence, and *Cd. Cx.* before each compound-complex sentence. Punctuate the sentences. In the second column write the number of the rule governing the punctuation (see Chapter 5, § D; Chapter 10, § C; Chapter 11, § C; Chapter 12, § B; Chapter 13, § F; and rules 1.4 and 3.2).

- | | | |
|-------|-------|---|
| _____ | _____ | 1. For every thing you have missed you have |
| _____ | _____ | gained something else and for every thing you |
| _____ | _____ | gain you lose something.—Emerson. |
| _____ | _____ | 2. Every sweet has its sour every evil has its |
| _____ | _____ | good. |
| _____ | _____ | 3. As soon as Aladdin found that the provisions |
| _____ | _____ | were expended he took one of the dishes and |
| _____ | _____ | went to look for his Jewish merchants. |
| _____ | _____ | 4. Before Aladdin went home he called at a |
| _____ | _____ | baker's bought some cakes of bread changed |
| _____ | _____ | his money and on his return gave the rest to |
| _____ | _____ | his mother who purchased provisions enough |
| _____ | _____ | to last them for some time. |
| _____ | _____ | 5. Nobody but Aladdin knew the secret and he |
| _____ | _____ | kept it with the most scrupulous silence and |
| _____ | _____ | neither the sultan nor the grand vizier who |
| _____ | _____ | had forgotten Aladdin and his request had the |
| _____ | _____ | least thought that he had any hand in the |
| _____ | _____ | strange adventures that befell the bride and |
| _____ | _____ | bridegroom. |
| _____ | _____ | 6. As soon as he dismounted he retired to his |
| _____ | _____ | own chamber took the lamp and forthwith |
| _____ | _____ | summoned the genie who professed his al- |
| _____ | _____ | legiance. |

- _____ 7. "Genie" said Aladdin "build me a palace fit
_____ to receive the Princess Buddir al Buddoor."
- _____ 8. "Let each front contain six windows and let
_____ the lattices of these be enriched with diamonds
_____ rubies and emeralds so that they shall exceed
_____ everything of the kind ever seen in the
_____ world."—*Arabian Nights*.
- _____ 9. We wear black for mourning the Chinese
_____ wear white.
- _____ 10. We write across the page from left to right
_____ they write down the page from right to left.
- _____ 11. He had been under observation because he
_____ had given conflicting statements concerning
_____ his whereabouts on the night of the murder.
_____ [Assume that the reader has known of the
_____ observation.]
- _____ 12. Byron had little affection for his mother
_____ during her lifetime but her death struck him
_____ to the quick.
- _____ 13. As a general rule the size of the leaf cells of
_____ these mosses is in direct proportion to the
_____ amount of available water that is of two
_____ species the one that lives in the drier habitat
_____ has the smaller cells.
- _____ 14. Her condition is very serious consequently
_____ visitors are not admitted.
- _____ 15. Her condition is so serious that visitors are
_____ not admitted.
- _____ 16. It is known that Rigoletto is a helper in the
_____ wickedness of the Duke and the others plan
_____ how they may take vengeance.

PRACTICE SHEET 34

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 14. EXERCISE A. CERTAIN ASPECTS OF THE VERB

In the first column at the left, write the verbs. In the second, indicate whether they are intransitive (*Intr.*), transitive active (*Tr. A.*), or transitive passive (*Tr. P.*).

Verb	Kind
paid	Tr. A.

were caught	Tr. P.
-------------	--------

had lain	Intr. A.
----------	----------

was suggested	Tr. P.
---------------	--------

is	Intr. #
----	---------

will be made	Tr. P.
--------------	--------

was destroyed	Tr. P.
---------------	--------

have been	Intr. P.
-----------	----------

will go	Intr. A.
---------	----------

have been treated	Intr. P.
-------------------	----------

keep	Tr. A.
------	--------

is dangerous	Intr. P.
--------------	----------

can you	Tr. P.
---------	--------

arose	Intr. #
-------	---------

will have been	Intr. #
----------------	---------

1. At the end of his speech he paid a tribute to the pioneers.

2. The salmon were being caught by dozens.

3. For years the old hat had lain in the attic.

4. The idea for this story was suggested to me by a friend.

5. A man's home is his castle.

6. A new certificate will be made for Albert Swanson, inasmuch as the original one was accidentally destroyed.

7. You may have been misunderstood.

8. He will go home for Christmas.

9. I have not been treated fairly.

10. We never keep medicine in the house.

11. A dark, lonely country road is frequently a dangerous place.

12. What reason can you possibly give for your absence?

13. Gradually there arose among the students a feeling of disgust.

14. By next Christmas he will have been away from home four years.

EXERCISE B. CHANGE OF VOICE

Make passive constructions active, and change transitive active verbs to the passive. Write *Intr.* above each intransitive verb.

1. The leading rôle was played by John Barrymore.
Intr.
John Barrymore played the leading rôle.
2. After Doctor Stone had delivered the commencement address, President Burr conferred the degrees upon the graduates.
the commencement address had been delivered by Dr. Stone after the degrees upon the graduates were conferred by President Burr.
3. It has been announced by the company that the revised edition will be published soon.
The company has announced that the revised edition will be published soon.
4. Harvard was founded by the colonists in 1636.
In 1636 the colonists founded Harvard.
5. Mr. Taylor will make an important announcement after the meeting of the finance committee.
An important announcement will be made after the meeting of the finance committee.
6. The eagle is the king of birds.
The king of birds is the eagle.
7. The skylark mounts in wide circles as it sings.

8. Poe wrote "The Raven" in 1845.

In 1845 "The Raven" was written by Poe
EXERCISE C. VOICE

Write three sentences with verbs in the active voice and three with verbs in the passive.

1. The boy caught the cat.
2. The boat sank in the river.
3. The car ran into the ditch.
4. The squirrel was shot by a man.
5. The ball was knocked out of the tree by a stone.
6. The man was hit on by a young boy.
7. The dog was scratched by an electric.

PRACTICE SHEET 35

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 14. EXERCISE D. USE OF THE PASSIVE

Revise each sentence in which the passive voice would be preferable to the present form. If you find a sentence that is correct and effective as it stands, place a *C.* before it.

1. In many regions they cut and thresh the wheat at one time with big machines called combines.
2. I have never seen a queen.
3. In college they expect a student to study at least two hours for each lesson.
4. The voters elected Theodore Roosevelt President of the United States in 1904.
5. One should not permit the oil in a car to run low.

EXERCISE E. THE WEAK PASSIVE

Revise the sentences containing awkward uses of the passive or objectionable shifts in voice. If a sentence is effective as it stands, place *E.* before it.

1. Your letter has been received and carefully read by me.
2. That was a crisis in my life which will never be forgotten.
3. He had for years professed himself to be a democrat, and his belief in the sovereignty of the people was frequently proclaimed.
4. Our hostess took us to the movie, and afterwards a delicious dinner was served.

5. Many trees were blown down by the storm.
6. After a short stop for dinner, our journey was resumed.
7. This story was told to me by the host.
8. I went to Yellowstone Park last summer, and the geysers were greatly enjoyed.
9. Many old friends were seen at the picnic.

EXERCISE F. REVIEW OF VOICE

If a sentence is effective as it stands, place *E.* before it. Otherwise, improve it by changing the active construction to the passive or the passive to the active.

1. In England they teach English in connection with other subjects.
2. The Epworth League met at the Stoley home last Thursday evening, and a good time was had by everybody.
3. The magazine has been mislaid by Mrs. Wise.
4. His views are published by him at every opportunity.
5. I told him what to do, but my advice was not taken by him.
6. This suit was bought by me in Cleveland.
7. Yesterday I was almost struck by a car.
8. I telephoned to the box office, but they told me that the tickets were all gone.
9. The other car was not seen until I was nearly upon it.

PRACTICE SHEET 36

Name..... Date.....

CHAPTER 15. EXERCISE A. THE SUBJUNCTIVE

At the left of each sentence, write the proper form of *to be*. If either the indicative or the subjunctive would be correct, give both forms.

- _____ 1. I wish he _____ here.
- _____ 2. If you _____ I, would you accept the nomination?
- _____ 3. If you _____ wise, you will refuse to marry him.
- _____ 4. I move that the report _____ adopted.
- _____ 5. I wish I _____ in the city.
- _____ 6. _____ you to leave now, all of us would be disappointed.
- _____ 7. If he _____ coming, I shall not be needed.
- _____ 8. I should go even if I _____ displeased.
- _____ 9. If you _____ the manager, what would you do about it?
- _____ 10. If the activities of the club _____ suspended for a year, they will probably never be resumed.
- _____ 11. I am glad that his mother _____ not here.
- _____ 12. If she _____ here, she would hardly survive the shock.
- _____ 13. If I _____ in your place, I would accept the proposed compromise.

EXERCISE B. THE SUBJUNCTIVE

At the left of each sentence, write the proper form of the verb given within the marks of parenthesis. If either the indicative or the subjunctive would be correct, write both forms.

- _____ 1. If Shakespeare (*to be*) alive today, he would be over three hundred years old.
- _____ 2. I demand that the landlord (*to lower*) the rent.
- _____ 3. God (*to bless*) you, my dear children. (Express a wish.)
- _____ 4. I suggest that the student (passive of *to expel*) for dishonesty.
- _____ 5. Would that I (*to be*) a senior!
- _____ 6. If the surrounding metropolitan areas of both cities (passive of *to include*), New York has a greater population than London.
- _____ 7. This bag looks as if it (passive of *to make*) of leather.
- _____ 8. Though Hansen (*to work*) all night, he can not finish the term paper on time.
- _____ 9. He talks as if he (*to be*) a famous actor.
- _____ 10. I insist that he (*to fulfill*) his part of the contract.
- _____ 11. The average beginner handles his gun as if it (*to be*) a broomstick.
- _____ 12. If he (past perfect of *to attend*) college last year, he would graduate next June

PRACTICE SHEET 37

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 16. EXERCISE A. PARTICIPLES

In the first column at the left, write the participles, in the second, designate the function, using *subj. comp.* for *subjective complement*, *adj. mod.* for *adjective modifier of*, and *obj. comp.* for *objective complement*. Do not include forms of the participle used as portions of finite verbs. If a sentence contains two participles, write the first on the blank line provided, and place the second immediately below the line. Underscore nominatives absolute. Supply punctuation.

Participle	Function	
<u>translated</u>	<u>Adj. mod. "poem"</u>	1. The poem, translated in the original meter, was a failure.
<u>thirsting</u>	<u>adj. mod.</u>	2. "I bring fresh showers for the thirsting flowers From the seas and the streams."—Shelley.
<u>being pleasant</u>	<u>adj. mod.</u>	3. The day being pleasant we went for a drive.
<u>spent</u>	<u>adj. mod.</u>	4. His money spent, he decided to go to work.
<u>remained standing</u>	<u>adj. mod.</u>	5. He remained standing.
<u>having been accepted</u>	<u>adj. mod.</u>	6. Our terms having been accepted, the deed was signed.
<u>Having been called home</u>	<u>adj. mod.</u>	7. Having been called home I must miss classes next week.
<u>Six months having elapsed</u>	<u>adj. mod.</u>	8. Six months having elapsed since we heard from him, we thought him lost.
<u>He lay in bed</u>	<u>adj. mod.</u>	9. He lay in bed, his muscles twitching violently.
<u>All things considered</u>	<u>adj. mod.</u>	10. All things considered, it might be worse.
<u>Surrounded by snow-capped peaks</u>	<u>adj. mod.</u>	11. Surrounded by snow-capped peaks, reaching towards heaven, it gives one an impression of massive beauty.

<i>Participle</i>	<i>Function</i>	
<u> </u>	<u> </u>	12. Given the opportunity to express his own ideas in a bridge or even a log chute, he is as happy as a child playing with a new toy.
<u> </u>	<u> </u>	13. We thought that our little log cabin, crouching among the trees at the edge of a small clearing, would be ample protection against the approaching storm.
<u> </u>	<u> </u>	14. The sky assumed a forbidding countenance.
<u> </u>	<u> </u>	15. Possessing unusual mechanical ability, he follows the construction business building roads, docks, and bridges.
<u> </u>	<u> </u>	16. How many planes have you seen passing swiftly above you or sinking down to rest by your side?
<u> </u>	<u> </u>	17. In his heavy, caulked shoes and rough clothes, Uncle Martin presents a picture of ruggedness, like that of the cliffs and headlands rising from the fiords back in his native land.

EXERCISE B. FORMS OF THE PARTICIPLE

Write sentences illustrating each of the five forms of the participle listed in Chapter 16, § A. Have at least one sentence with a participle or participial phrase at the beginning and at least one with such an element at the end. Be sure that you have substantives for the participles to modify, and that you use the proper punctuation.

PRACTICE SHEET 38

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 16. EXERCISE C. FORMS OF THE PARTICIPLE

Observing the rules for spelling in Chapter 16, § A, complete the present and the past participles of the following verbs. For the formation of the past participles, see the third paragraph of the section. If you are in doubt about any form, consult the dictionary.

<i>Present Stem</i>	<i>Present Participle</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>	<i>Present Stem</i>	<i>Present Participle</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
1. snap	sna_____ing	sn _____	13. shine	shi_____ing	sh _____
2. plan	pla_____ing	pl _____	14. agree	agr_____ing	agr _____
3. plane	pla_____ing	pl _____	15. die	d_____ing	d _____
4. get	ge_____ing	g _____	16. dye	d_____ing	d _____
5. begin	begi_____ing	beg _____	17. hope	ho_____ing	h _____
6. moan	moa_____ing	m _____	18. singe	sin_____ing	s _____
7. develop	develo_____ing	devel _____	19. dine	di_____ing	d _____
8. receive	recei_____ing	rec _____	20. equip	equi_____ing	eq _____
9. quit	qui_____ing	q _____	21. wait	wai_____ing	wai _____
10. prefer	prefe_____ing	pref _____	22. run	ru_____ing	r _____
11. offer	offe_____ing	off _____	23. come	co_____ing	c _____
12. mourn	mour_____ing	m _____	24. sin	si_____ing	s _____

EXERCISE D. THE NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE

Write two sentences with nominatives absolute at the beginning and one sentence with a nominative absolute at the end. Be careful to punctuate correctly.

EXERCISE E. THE DANGLING PARTICIPLE

Revise the dangling participles. If you find a correct sentence, place a C. before it.

one obtains

1. Standing on the balcony, ^ a good view of the entire city. ~~is ob-~~
~~tained.~~
2. Shifting the gears quickly, an accident was avoided.
3. I went to a movie nearly every night, resulting in low grades.
4. Having eaten our lunch, the host took us out for a drive.
5. I sprained my ankle yesterday, caused by a broken board.
6. Hanging on a nail in the barn, I saw the rusty, battered lantern.
7. The next year I won a corn-raising contest, giving me a free trip to
Chicago.
8. Having shot a pheasant, the dog retrieves it.
9. The failure of the bank was caused by unwise investments.
10. Being sick in bed, my roommate brought me my meals.
11. I do not have the money, making it impossible for me to buy the
house.
12. Entering the park at the south gate, many wild animals in cages
are seen.
13. His inheritance is nearly exhausted, caused by extravagant living.
14. Being a conceited fool, I must treat him very tactfully.
15. I thought I was being pursued, frightening me very much.

PRACTICE SHEET 39

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 17. EXERCISE A. GERUNDS

In the first column at the left, write the gerunds; in the second, designate the function (*subj.*, *subj. comp.*, *dir. obj.*, *obj. prcp.*, *app.*). If a sentence contains more than one gerund, write the first one on the blank line provided, and place the other gerund or gerunds immediately below the line. Supply punctuation.

<i>Gerund</i>	<i>Function</i>	
<u>watching</u>	<u>Obj. prcp.</u>	1. By watching in secret for three nights/ we discovered who the culprit was.
<u> </u>	<u> </u>	2. The howling of the wolves and the screaming of the panther were mingled in nightly concert.
<u> </u>	<u> </u>	3. Your inviting another guest has caused an awkward situation.
<u> </u>	<u> </u>	4. After waiting patiently we finally caught a glimpse of Lindbergh.
<u> </u>	<u> </u>	5. Our having been defeated twice this season makes our winning the championship impossible.
<u> </u>	<u> </u>	6. I hate his excusing himself for every ball he misses.
<u> </u>	<u> </u>	7. He was surprised at my resigning from that position and accepting the one in Buffalo.
<u> </u>	<u> </u>	8. One of my earliest hobbies was collecting arrowheads; a later one was tearing machinery apart and putting it together again.
<u> </u>	<u> </u>	9. My hobby last spring reading travel books and poring over maps/ was prompted by my being appointed as a delegate to a convention.
<u> </u>	<u> </u>	10. The ground here is too level for my favorite winter sport skiing.

EXERCISE B. PARTICIPLES AND GERUNDS

In the first column, write the participles and the gerunds; in the second, indicate the kind; in the third, designate the function. If a sentence contains more than one verbal, write the first one on the blank line provided, and place the other verbal or verbals immediately below the line. Underscore nominatives absolute. Supply punctuation.

<i>Verbal</i>	<i>Kind</i>	<i>Function</i>	
<u>muscled</u>	<u>Part.</u>	<u>Mod. "arms"</u>	1. Uncle Martin had a massive chest and heavily muscled arms.
_____	_____	_____	2. Without warning, a dazzling flash zigzagged across the heavens being followed a second later by a deafening crash.
_____	_____	_____	3. One day just as the early sown wheat was beginning to throw a tinge of green over the earth, a wind arose from the southwest and blew with such devastating fury that the soil, caught up from the fields, formed a cloud hundreds of feet high—a cloud which darkened the sky turning noon into dusk and sending everyone to shelter.
_____	_____	_____	4. Its roots exposed to the air the growing grain withered and died.
_____	_____	_____	5. Swimming and boating do not appeal to me nearly so much as does tobogganing.
_____	_____	_____	6. Here was discovered a huge plaster cast of a bull's head considered the most excellent representation of a bull ever found.
_____	_____	_____	7. After talking with you I went to my room.
_____	_____	_____	8. From broad belts hung bell-shaped skirts flounced embroidered or pleated.

PRACTICE SHEET 40

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 17. EXERCISE C. FUNCTIONS OF THE GERUND

Write sentences illustrating each of the five functions of the gerund listed in Chapter 17, § B.

EXERCISE D. THE POSSESSIVE WITH THE GERUND

Distinguish between the forms in parentheses, and write the correct words on the lines at the left. Notice that some of the verbals are gerunds, whereas others are participles used as objective complements.

- _____ 1. She was afraid of (me, my) catching cold.
- _____ 2. Is there any objection to (John, John's) going?
- _____ 3. We saw (them, their) working on the rock pile.
- _____ 4. There is a possibility of (Mary, Mary's) refusing the position.
- _____ 5. I found (him, his) sitting in the station.
- _____ 6. He was not in favor of (us, our) consulting a lawyer.
- _____ 7. I heard of (him, his) swimming Hood's Canal.
- _____ 8. (We, Us, Our) being there made him somewhat nervous.
- _____ 9. He did not remember (me, my) giving him the paper.
- _____ 10. I was surprised at (him, his) being there.
- _____ 11. Only yesterday I heard of (them, their) going bankrupt.
- _____ 12. I saw (you, your) buying a railroad ticket.

EXERCISE E. DANGLING GERUND PHRASES

Revise the sentences containing dangling verbals. If you find a sentence that is correct, place a C. before it.

- 1. Besides being an intelligent person, many good times can be had with him.

2. Before beginning the game, the tennis balls were found to be almost dead.
3. In greasing the wheel, the hub cap must be removed by turning the wrench to the left.
4. After reading for about five hours, my head began to ache.
5. I became aware of his presence through blowing his nose.
6. In discussing my proposition with Mr. Long in detail, he told me that he did not favor it.
7. In climbing the ladder, his foot slipped, causing him to fall.

EXERCISE F. REDUCTION OF CLAUSES TO VERBALS

Change each of the following into a simple sentence by making a verbal of one of the clauses.

1. The orchestra played from a printed score, and it did much better.
2. I do not use a fountain pen when I write letters.
3. The men were marking the tennis courts, and they were using yellow paint instead of the customary black.
4. After I had studied hard for several months, I was glad to have a few weeks of vacation.
5. The battle was fought with all the equipment of modern warfare. It brought into use planes, tanks, heavy artillery, machine guns, trenches, and barbed wire entanglements.
6. The battle continued forty-eight hours, and it was concluded by a cavalry charge.

PRACTICE SHEET 41

Name..... Date.....

CHAPTER 18. EXERCISE A. FUNCTIONS OF THE INFINITIVE

Underscore objective-infinitive constructions twice. Underscore other infinitives once, and at the left indicate their functions. If the infinitive is a modifier, indicate whether it is adjectival or adverbial, and specify the word modified.

- _____ 1. He decided to buy three tickets.
- _____ 2. Their mission was to convert the heathen.
- _____ 3. She wished for nothing except to live.
- _____ 4. I learned my lesson, to leave such things alone.
- _____ 5. To know her was to love her.
- _____ 6. The officer let him go.
- _____ 7. He stole the bread to keep from starving.
- _____ 8. The thing to do is to devote more time to your studies.
- _____ 9. They were exceedingly eager to go.
- _____ 10. The captain ordered the soldiers to attack the city.
- _____ 11. To read Boswell's *Johnson* is to see common sense at its best.
- _____ 12. To become a successful doctor, one should secure a thorough medical training.
- _____ 13. He felt the building shake.
- _____ 14. His wife made him wear a hat.
- _____ 15. To speak truly, I don't know the man.
- _____ 16. The aviator expected to use less gasoline.
- _____ 17. I watched the sun go down.
- _____ 18. He refused to sell the copyright.
- _____ 19. The accident was thought to be the result of the man's deafness.

EXERCISE B. THE DANGLING INFINITIVE

Revise the sentences containing dangling infinitives. If you find a correct sentence, write C. before it.

1. To be comfortable in winter, the furnace must be in good condition.
2. To have a real Thanksgiving dinner, a turkey was purchased.
3. To become thoroughly roasted, leave the turkey in the oven for about two and a half hours.
4. To eat hastily is harmful.
5. To prevent their victim from making an outcry, he was gagged and securely tied.
6. We went to Chicago to see Barrymore in Galsworthy's *Justice*.
7. To learn to swim, my father frequently took me to the lake.

EXERCISE C. THE SPLIT INFINITIVE

Alter the following sentences in such a way as to avoid the splitting of the infinitives.

1. They expected us to not say a word.
2. We call upon the city council to immediately remove the chief of police from office.
3. The gnawing of porcupines and squirrels causes the antlers shed by deer, elk, and moose to rapidly disappear.
4. One should learn to correctly modulate his voice.
5. A written outline helps a person to logically organize a long composition.
6. He decided to cheerfully accept the punishment and to say nothing.

PRACTICE SHEET 42

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 18. EXERCISE D. CASE IN OBJECTIVE-INFINITIVE CONSTRUCTIONS

On the lines at the left, write the correct forms.

- _____ 1. Hawes at first thought Brand and Weeks to be you and (I, me).
- _____ 2. He soon discovered, however, that it was not (we, us).
- _____ 3. When Miss Gaines met Mr. and Mrs. Howe last night, she took (they, them) to be (we, us).
- _____ 4. Though I do not know Doctor Corey very well, I believe that man to be (he, him).
- _____ 5. Miss Sanford tried to disguise her voice, but I knew that it was (she, her).
- _____ 6. They did not suspect it to be (I, me).

EXERCISE E. REVIEW OF CASE

On the lines at the left, write the correct forms.

- _____ 1. Will you go to the park with Hamilton and (I, me)?
- _____ 2. My parents wanted both my brother and (I, me) to attend college.
- _____ 3. (Who, Whom) did you give it to?
- _____ 4. He imposes on (whoever, whomever) gives him an opportunity to do so.
- _____ 5. (Who, Whom) did you say will be the speaker?
- _____ 6. I recommend the appointment of Brown, (who, whom) I believe will be an efficient chairman.
- _____ 7. The soldiers did not know (who, whom) to obey.
- _____ 8. No, I am not (he, him), but I shall be glad to call (he, him).

EXERCISE F. SEQUENCE OF TENSES IN VERBALS

On the lines at the left, write the correct forms.

- | | |
|-------|---|
| _____ | 1. I intended (to visit, to have visited) you at the hospital. |
| _____ | 2. I should have liked (to go, to have gone) to the game. |
| _____ | 3. (Being, Having been) hurt in an accident yesterday, Jones was unable to come to the office this morning. |
| _____ | 4. (Having, Having had) my afternoon free, I went to the baseball game. |
| _____ | 5. He expected (to arrive, to have arrived) on time. |

EXERCISE G. REDUCTION OF CLAUSES TO VERBALS

In each of the following sentences, reduce one of the clauses to a verbal or a nominative absolute. Be careful to have the right sequence of tenses (rule 18.6), to punctuate properly (16.5-8, 17.6-7, 21.12), and, if a pronoun is involved, to use the correct case (18.1).

1. He thought that they were we.
2. Because he had been in prison, he had difficulty in getting a job.
3. Cramer is glad that he has been of assistance to us.
4. My brother expected that she would come.
5. When they arrived at the station, they were greeted by a group of friends.
6. In order that he might improve his work, he employed a tutor.
7. He hoped that he would improve his work.
8. Freeman came to college in order that he might study law.
9. When the rain had stopped, we continued our journey.
10. I had traveled all night in a bus, and I could hardly stay awake in class.
11. After he had studied his botany lesson, he went to bed.

PRACTICE SHEET 43

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 19. EXERCISE A. PRINCIPAL PARTS

Write the past tense and the past participle of each of the following verbs. If a verb has alternate forms, use the preferred one.

<i>Present Stem</i>	<i>Past Tense</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
bend	_____	_____
bite	_____	_____
blow	_____	_____
break	_____	_____
bring	_____	_____
catch	_____	_____
choose	_____	_____
draw	_____	_____
eat	_____	_____
flee	_____	_____
fly	_____	_____
flow	_____	_____
freeze	_____	_____
lead	_____	_____
light	_____	_____
lose	_____	_____
loose	_____	_____
prove	_____	_____
rid	_____	_____
shine	_____	_____
show	_____	_____
shrink	_____	_____
wake	_____	_____

EXERCISE B. VERB FORMS

Choosing between the forms in parentheses, write the correct ones at the left.

- _____ 1. He (dived, dove) in and (swam, swum) to the
_____ island.
- _____ 2. The criminal was (hung, hanged) at sunrise.
- _____ 3. He had (come, came) on the early train and had
_____ (began, begun) the work before we arrived.
- _____ 4. He had (got, gotten) himself into legal difficulty.
- _____ 5. He (come, came) down from Cleveland yester-
_____ day and (give, gave) an excellent address.
- _____ 6. Has the bell (rang, rung) yet?
- _____ 7. He (began, begun) to study the violin at the
_____ age of ten and had (became, become) a skillful
_____ violinist before he was sixteen.
- _____ 8. We (did, done) our duty.
- _____ 9. We have (did, done) our duty.
- _____ 10. *David Copperfield* was (wrote, written) by
_____ Dickens in 1850, after he had (wrote, written)
_____ several other novels.
- _____ 11. Byron (became, become) famous in 1812 with
_____ the publication of *Childe Harold*, (wrote, written)
_____ after a tour of southern Europe.
- _____ 12. There he had (went, gone) into many curious
_____ places and had (saw, seen) many romantic
_____ adventures.
- _____ 13. Today I have (rode, ridden) horseback eighteen
_____ miles and have (climbed, clumb) Mt. Lee.

PRACTICE SHEET 44

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 19. EXERCISE C. VERB FORMS

Write the correct forms on the lines at the left.

- _____
_____ 1. We (ran, run) to the shore, (dragged, drug) the
_____ boat across the sands, and rowed as hard as we
_____ could; but before we reached the swimmer, he
_____ had (drownded, drowned).
- _____ 2. John has (ran, run) too far for his strength.
- _____ 3. Near Tsing-too, I (saw, seen) a curious little
_____ Chinese temple, (drank, drunk) tea with its
_____ aged priest, and at his request (sang, sung) to
_____ him a group of college songs.
- _____ 4. Before I went to China, I had never (drunk,
_____ drank) tea.
- _____ 5. He (rang, rung) the bell as soon as we had
_____ (sung, sang) the opening song.
- _____ 6. I (knowed, knew) that you would (lose, loose)
_____ that ball when you (throwed, threw) it over
_____ the fence.
- _____ 7. Miss Smith (came, come) home last week.
- _____ 8. The water tank (busted, burst, bursted) and
_____ (drownded, drowned) all the little chickens.
- _____ 9. I have (broke, broken) my favorite lamp.
- _____ 10. We have (dragged, drug) the deer back to camp
_____ and have (hung, hanged) it in a tree.
- _____ 11. Who (forbid, forbade) you to talk in the hall?

- _____ 12. By whom were you (forbade, forbidden) to talk
in the hall?
- _____ 13. I (bid, bade) fifty dollars on the yacht; then the
_____ bids (came, come) thick and fast.
- _____ 14. He has (sang, sung) that selection twice.
- _____ 15. I was (born, borne, borned) in southern Missouri
- _____ 16. I had never (dived, dove) until that summer
_____ nor had I (swam, swum) long distances.
- _____ 17. He is to be (hung, hanged) on August 15.
- _____ 18. It is so cold that the water pipes have (busted
burst, bursted).
- _____ 19. Has the cat (drank, drunk) all the milk?
- _____ 20. I (saw, seen) him at the game yesterday.

EXERCISE D. RISE—RAISE

On the lines at the left, write the correct forms of *rise* or *raise*.

- _____ 1. I _____ at six every morning. (Past tense)
- _____ 2. The dog did not _____ from the floor.
- _____ 3. The team _____ to the occasion and won.
- _____ 4. The flag was _____ by the standard bearer
- _____ 5. The chairman has _____.
- _____ 6. The conductor has _____ his baton.
- _____ 7. The trap door had been carefully _____.
- _____ 8. We saw that every one else had _____.
- _____ 9. If you have a question, _____ your hand.
- _____ 10. The bread _____ slowly. (Present tense)



Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 19. EXERCISE E. LIE—LAY

On the lines at the left, write the correct forms of *lie* or *lay*.

- _____ 1. Several books are _____ on the table.
- _____ 2. Pick them up and _____ them on the shelf.
- _____ 3. I should like to _____ on the sand.
- _____ 4. Is he still _____ there?
- _____ 5. Why don't you _____ down, if you are tired?
- _____ 6. This manuscript has _____ in my desk for
six months.
- _____ 7. He has been _____ around all day.
- _____ 8. The ball is _____ somewhere here in the
grass.
- _____ 9. Yesterday I _____ down for an hour in the
afternoon.
- _____ 10. Yesterday I _____ a letter under the clock.
- _____ 11. At eight o'clock she was still _____ in bed.
- _____ 12. When I saw her, she was _____ the linen
away.
- _____ 13. The mason surely _____ this sidewalk well.
- _____ 14. Yesterday the rug _____ out in the sunshine.
- _____ 15. I _____ my spectacles upon the table.
- _____ 16. I have _____ here since morning.
- _____ 17. The snow has _____ on the peak for ages.
- _____ 18. She has _____ the table very carefully.
- _____ 19. The hens have been _____ well this season.

A WRITER'S WORKBOOK

EXERCISE F. SIT—SET

On the lines at the left, write the correct forms of *sit* or *set*.

1. Let us _____ down here on the grass.
2. _____ the chair in the corner.
3. The sun will _____ at 5:34 P. M.
4. The coat _____ well on his shoulders.
5. The chairs had been carefully _____ around the table.
6. We _____ there until the end of the play.
7. The dog has been _____ on his hind legs for half an hour.
8. Last night she _____ a dish of fruit in the refrigerator.
9. The logs were _____ crosswise.
10. I have _____ the solution away.
11. The cement has _____ quickly.
12. Have you _____ here long?
13. It seemed as if we had _____ there for hours.
14. There it was, where he had _____ it.
15. The bronze plate had been carefully _____ in the wall.
16. Last night they _____ around the campfire.
17. Mr. and Mrs. Hale are _____ on the deck.
18. The date for his wedding has been _____.
19. Won't you _____ down for a little while?
20. I am very fond of _____ on the shore of Lake Michigan.

PRACTICE SHEET 46

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 20. EXERCISE A. REVIEW OF GRAMMATICAL ELEMENTS

You are to do three things: a) In the spaces provided at the left, indicate concerning each sentence whether it is *simple (S.)*, *compound (Cd.)*, *complex (Cx.)*, or *compound-complex (Cd. Cx.)*. b) Add punctuation wherever necessary. c) For each of the elements listed below the sentences, specify the kind (finite verb, noun, pronoun, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, participle, gerund, infinitive, prepositional phrase, dependent clause, independent clause); and, except in the case of an independent clause, designate the function (verb, subject, subjective complement, direct object, indirect object, objective complement, object of a preposition, appositive, nominative of address, substantive of a nominative absolute, adjective modifier of ———, adverbial modifier of ———, connective). In the longer elements, dots represent intervening words that are to be included.

- Cd.* 1. Since I was a small boy I have liked to write.
 2. The fact is that neither of us knew the way.
 3. When I finished the last page I felt as if I had been in the war and had fought beside my comrades the characters of the story.

<i>Element</i>	<i>Kind</i>	<i>Function</i>
1. Boy	<u>Noun</u>	<u>Subj. compl.</u>
since I . . . boy	<u>Dep. clause</u>	<u>Adv. mod.</u>
to write	<u>Inf.</u>	<u>Direct obj.</u>
2. that neither . . . way	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
way	<u><i>ind. clause</i></u>	<u><i>adv. mod.</i></u>
3. When I . . . page	<u><i>ind. clause</i></u>	<u> </u>
as if . . . of the story	<u><i>dep. clause</i></u>	<u> </u>
and	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
had fought	<u><i>partic.</i></u>	<u> </u>
my	<u><i>poss. pron.</i></u>	<u> </u>
characters	<u><i>noun</i></u>	<u> </u>

- _____ 4. Digging clams was so much fun that we paid no atten-
 _____ tion to the water swishing about our feet.
 _____ 5. Surrounded by tall trees and caught in the mazes of
 dense underbrush we had lost all sense of direction.
 _____ 6. It is folly to attempt describing the hurricane which then
 _____ blew.
 _____ 7. Because I knew Latin very well learning to read French
 _____ was not difficult but learning to speak it was an entirely
 _____ different matter.

Element	Kind	Function
4. Digging	verb	
fun	verb	
that we . . . feet	verb	
swishing	verb	
5. Surrounded	verb	modifier
caught	verb	
in the mazes	verb	
of . . . underbrush	verb	
all	verb	
6. to attempt	verb	
describing	verb	
hurricane	verb	
which then blew	verb	
then	verb	
7. Because I . . . well	verb	
learning	verb	
difficult	verb	
to speak	verb	
it	verb	

PRACTICE SHEET 47

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 20. EXERCISE B. REVIEW OF GRAMMATICAL ELEMENTS

You are to do three things: a) Indicate the kind of each sentence (S., Cd., Cx., Cd. Cx.). b) Add punctuation wherever necessary. c) For each of the elements listed below the sentences, specify the kind and the function.

- _____ 8. Etchezar a tiny Basque village scattered picturesquely among towering peaks is far from the influence of any modern civilization.
- _____ 9. On Sunday the only real holiday of these people everyone comes to the town square to join in the dancing.
- _____ 10. This book written by Pierre Loti pictures the lives and customs of the Basque people who live in the Pyrenees Mountains. [Let the punctuation imply that the whole Basque people dwells there.]
- _____ 11. The author's purpose is to give the reader a true idea of the lives and personalities of these men.

<i>Element</i>	<i>Kind</i>	<i>Function</i>
8. Basque	_____	_____
village	_____	_____
scattered	_____	_____
towering	_____	_____
among . . . peaks	_____	_____
9. On Sunday	_____	_____
holiday	_____	_____
to join	_____	_____
10. written	_____	_____
lives and customs	_____	_____
who . . . Mountains	_____	_____
11. author's	_____	_____
to give	_____	_____
reader	_____	_____
personalities	_____	_____

- _____ 12. That a government of the people could be as corrupt as this article indicates is unbelievable.
- _____ 13. John I shall send you the address of the hotel where we stayed last year for I know you will like the place.
- _____ 14. His special reason for studying French is that he expects to go to Paris next summer.
- _____ 15. I told him where he could purchase his lumber.
- _____ 16. In Persia the tombs were few in number the practice of embalming the dead not being very prevalent.

<i>Element</i>	<i>Kind</i>	<i>Function</i>
12. That a gov't . . . indicates	_____	_____
corrupt	_____	_____
this	_____	_____
13. John	_____	_____
you	_____	_____
where . . . year	_____	_____
year	_____	_____
for	_____	_____
for . . . place	_____	_____
you . . . place	_____	_____
14. for	_____	_____
studying	_____	_____
that . . . summer	_____	_____
to go	_____	_____
summer	_____	_____
15. him	_____	_____
where . . . lumber	_____	_____
could purchase	_____	_____
16. In Persia	_____	_____
practice	_____	_____
embalming	_____	_____
being	_____	_____
prevalent	_____	_____

PRACTICE SHEET 48

Name..... Date.....

CHAPTER 20. EXERCISE C. REVIEW OF FRAGMENTARY SENTENCES, COMMA SPLICES, AND "RUN-TOGETHER" SENTENCES

Place *C.* before each correct passage, *F.* before each passage containing a fragmentary sentence, *C.S.* before each comma splice, and *R.T.* before each "run-together" sentence. Revise the incorrect sentences. See the following rules: 5.4, 5.5, 5.8, 5.12, 10.10, 13.10, 16.7, 16.8, 20.1.

- _____ 1. The Mexican fiesta resembles an old-fashioned Fourth of July celebration in a small town in the United States. The only difference being that the latter is chiefly for the children, whereas the former is dominated by parents and grandparents.
- _____ 2. At midnight before the opening day, the town breaks into pandemonium. Bells ring, bombs explode, and other noises rend the air.
- _____ 3. The average wage was fifteen dollars a week, this was hardly enough for a family to live on.
- _____ 4. A few years ago we moved to Great Falls, Montana. A beautiful little town situated upon bare, rolling plains over which the cold north winds blow in blizzards during the winter months and heap the snow in high drifts.
- _____ 5. I enjoyed the way the book was written. Not too scientific and yet not too simple.
- _____ 6. The author's purpose is to picture the life of the common soldier in the trenches. To make one think about the agony and horror of the War.
- _____ 7. John Anthony thinks that laborers should be treated

"with an iron hand," he is hard-hearted and very stubborn.

- _____ 8. Edgar Anthony has sympathy for the men in fact he pleads for them in spite of his father's attitude.
- _____ 9. The places of the students have been taken by the Commencement visitors, so the campus is as lively as ever.
- _____ 10. Hamilton City has been very prosperous in recent years. Its existence depending upon the cotton and the sugar beet industries.
- _____ 11. In the evening the husband goes to the club, the wife stays at home entertaining herself or sewing for the devoted spouse.
- _____ 12. Although Wagner is now considered one of the greatest composers, his music was at first severely condemned by critics.
- _____ 13. I was fortunate to secure a position on a survey party of a large power company. My official title being "stoke artist" or "puncher." Even though the older men delighted to make fun of me, I gained much valuable experience. The next summer I was a chainman. No longer the youngest in experience but still the victim of practical jokes. The penalty, I suppose, for being the youngest in years.
- _____ 14. A kind uncle is paying most of my expenses, otherwise, I could not be in college.
- _____ 15. Everybody should be educated at least that is the idea today.

PRACTICE SHEET 49

Name..... Date.....

CHAPTER 20. EXERCISE D. CORRECTION OF FAULTY SENTENCES

Correct all the errors in the following sentences. In the space at the left, name the error: comma splice, fragmentary sentence, dangling participle, faulty connective, faulty reference, and so forth, using abbreviations.

- | | |
|-------|---|
| _____ | 1. Cautiously creeping toward the garage as if to catch the car unaware, everything was found all right. |
| _____ | 2. The lower branches are somewhat drooping, while the middle ones have a decided upward trend. |
| _____ | 3. Then out of a clear sky came the radio. Another toy for men with nothing to do but to tinker with new pieces of mechanism. |
| _____ | 4. It would never be of any use, people said, the whole thing was too weak. |
| _____ | 5. But radio stations began to appear. The Blue net-work of the eastern region, the Red of the central states, and the Orange of the Pacific. |
| _____ | 6. Sometimes these logs break loose, caused by the wind or the tide. |
| _____ | 7. Neither of these devices was available to the Fund, due to strict patents by their inventors. |
| _____ | 8. The reason I am adapted to cold weather is because I have lived in North Dakota. |

-
9. The fire-finder is the principal working equipment of a look-out so he must see that it is perfectly accurate.
-
10. Every golfer wants to become skillful enough to beat their companion, just like that famous Scotchman did.
-
11. One great handicap in this region is the scarcity of water. A farmer sometimes having to haul all they use from the few wells and springs in the region.
-
12. He throws a sixteen-pound shot like it was a golf ball.
-
13. In this day and age when we must use both our mental and our physical powers and work unceasingly in this world of great rewards.
-
14. Overproduction in the cotton industry forced these mills to cease operating. Some of which transferred their location to the South.
-
15. Neither the plaintiff nor the defendant were in the courtroom when the verdict was announced.
-
16. I was robbed by a man whom I thought was my friend.
-
17. He thinks he has a harder lot than anybody in the world.

PRACTICE SHEET 50

Name.....

Date.....

CHAPTER 21. EXERCISE A. THE COMMA

Supply commas wherever they are needed in the following sentences, and in the left margin explain the use of each by specifying the proper rule number. See rules 21.10-20.

1. Gutenberg is supposed to have used movable type at Mainz, Germany, in 1450.
2. According to tradition, Coster the first printer in Holland made his first type from birch bark, learning the art accidentally by cutting his initials in a piece of bark and then making an impression on some parchment.
3. Colard Mansion, who was printing in Bruges in the last half of the fifteenth century, taught typography to William Caxton the first English printer.
4. So much labor was expended on printing that by the time of Caxton it had attained a development that differs little from the printing of today.
5. The spectator marvels at the courage of the football player, who hurls his weight against a madly driving pair of legs, at the skill and accuracy of a kicker or passer, at the courage of a player, who jumps into the path of a booted ball with the risk of a heavy shoe plowing into his face.
6. In order to take care of the increasing demand for physical education and athletics, colleges have adopted an educative course the object of which is to train men and women as physical directors, as directors of playgrounds and as athletic coaches.
7. The directors, after a definite period of time, checked up on the students' physical condition and scholastic standing.
8. The exact means by which the red man came into this country still remains a mystery, though many accept the theory that he crossed on an isthmus which once connected the Old World with the New World at the point where Bering Strait is now.
9. The Indians frequently carried on hunts in large parties, and even by whole tribes the members preparing themselves by fasting, dreaming and performing ceremonies.

- ✓ 10. Berries of various kinds were popular with the Indian and nuts, especially the acorn, were a staple food.
- ✓ 11. Yes, he is a scholarly, well-read young man.
- ✓ 12. George Washington died on December 14, 1799, at Mount Vernon, Virginia.
13. To equal the area of Alaska we should have to add Maine, Vermont, Ohio, Indiana, Tennessee, Kentucky and Michigan to the original thirteen states.
14. When Seward negotiated the purchase of Alaska in 1867, the vast majority of the American people thought of the region merely as a barren desolate land of snow and ice.
15. Fortunately the day before he had drawn two hundred dollars from the bank.
- ✓ 16. Mr. Sherman, is this the man that robbed you?
17. Well, I am not so enthusiastic about this project as I was yesterday.
18. Because this is such a large subject I must limit it to a few important points: namely the conditions in New York and Chicago, the chief causes of the conditions and the attempted remedies.
19. It was a cold bleak December day.
- ✓ 20. So far as I know, his character is good.
21. In avoiding a collision, he ran the car into the curb.
22. The turkey, as I have mentioned before, is a member of the pheasant family.
- ✓ 23. In concluding his plea, Otis Ross, the lawyer for the defense repeated, "Gentlemen, this innocent man must be acquitted."
24. All persons overcome by the fumes were soon revived.
25. Vachel Lindsay frequently recited his poem "The Congo."
26. William Ryan Sr. is a rich old banker isn't he?
27. This passage is to be found in Shakespeare's *King Lear*, Act I, scene ii, lines 1-22.
28. The train being two hours late we gave up the trip.
29. O Mr. Coulson where are you going?
30. Oh I am going to Lawrence, Kansas to visit my youngest son who you know is attending the university there.
31. A big black cat crossed our path just as we started.
32. In the third place, your price is too high.
33. He is a capable conscientious worker.

PRACTICE SHEET 51

Name.....

Date.....

CHAPTER 21. EXERCISE B. THE SEMICOLON, THE PERIOD, AND THE COMMA

Supply semicolons, periods, and commas wherever they are needed, and in the left margin give the reason for the use of each by specifying the proper rule number. See rules 21.21-23, 21.1, 21.3, 21.10-15, and 21.19 (d, j).

1. At a track meet; the average spectator is not aware of the name of the runner in front; his attention is on the grace and speed of the human body.
2. My study has necessarily been brief; however, it has brought me a better understanding of the Indian and his ways.
3. His habits are unique; his myths and legends are fascinating.
4. My mind roamed back through history to the Middle Ages when knighthood and chivalry flourished.
5. Many of the Indian legends have been on record for years, but others are still being heard and written down by white men for the first time.
6. This plant, a poppy is grown mainly in China, India, Persia, and Turkey and from it are derived morphine, heroin and codeine which are used for narcotics.
- ✓ 7. Cocaine does not cause confusion like whiskey or stupor like opiates; in fact it is sometimes used as an antidote to these.
8. Ore deposits in Michigan are very rich and the copper obtained is unparalleled in quality; so the mines are still operated despite adverse conditions.
9. The Western cities have not yet had to deal with this problem; consequently they do not realize its seriousness.
- ✓ 10. When the seeds of the rubber tree are ready to drop, the outer covering of the pod bursts with a loud report and the seeds shoot in all directions.
11. Because it is the custom in those tribes for a man to buy a wife from her parents; many a girl is married at a very early age but a boy since he must first work to accumulate the purchase price does not usually wed so young.
12. One interesting flower on Mt. Rainier is the basket grass

which grows to a height of three feet and has a raceme of creamy white blossoms; this plant, from which the Indians made baskets, is very showy when in bloom; another flower that makes a gorgeous display is the rhododendron, a shrub with a creamy white blossom; it is interesting both because it is beautiful and because it is the state flower of Washington; the lady's slipper, a mauve-pink blossom of early spring and the alpine beauty, a pure white flower with six petals are also noteworthy. [See the last sentence of the explanation of rule 21.21.]

13. The following prominent football veterans were graduated: Joe Hansen, center; Wilbur Luft, quarterback; Emmett Schroeder, fullback; and Frank Mitchell, end.

EXERCISE C. THE COLON AND THE COMMA

Supply colons and commas wherever they are needed in the following sentences, and in the left margin explain the use of each colon by writing the number of the rule that applies. See rules 21.12, 21.15, 21.17, and 21.24-27.

1. Three great violin-makers of Italy are largely responsible for the popularity of the instrument today: Amati; Stradivari; Da Salo.
2. The third paragraph of Emerson's "Self-Reliance" is as follows: [Imagine that the paragraph of 117 words is then quoted.]
3. I shall first discuss the most important of these topics: the physical changes caused by opiates.
4. Brazil produces various important commodities: rubber, coffee, cotton, sugar, tobacco and nuts.
5. In order best to achieve my purpose, I shall divide my subject into the following parts: the kinds of narcotics; the causes of drug addiction; the effects of addiction and the remedies for this evil.
6. According to A. P. Coleman, theories concerning the causes of glaciation fall into three large classes: geologic, meteorological and astronomic.
7. Emerson begins his "Uses of Great Men" with the following sentence: "It is natural to believe in great men."
8. The question is this: can we afford to send a delegate?
9. The train arrives at 8:45 A. M.

PRACTICE SHEET 52

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 21. EXERCISE D. THE DASH

Supply dashes and commas wherever they are needed, and explain in the left margin the use of each dash (or pair of dashes) by writing the number of the rule that applies. See rules 21.28-32, 21.15, and 21.10 (c, d, f).

1. Three famous contemporary violinists Elman Zimbalist and Heifitz were pupils of Leopold Auer.
2. These tiny Rainbow fish they are only about one-eighth of an inch long live rather precariously until they attain the great stature of three-fourths of an inch for the male and an inch and one-half for the female.
3. His demand namely that we pay him a half of the profits for the last two years is unreasonable.
4. This course which consists of calisthenics marching squad drill and apparatus work is now emphasized much less than it was formerly.
5. To study the natives of this land to understand more fully their lives their customs and their legends this is my purpose.
6. I suppose that everybody present today oh let's see I should first make an announcement.
7. Three American cities New York Chicago and Philadelphia had a population of over a million each in 1920.
8. As I was standing at the corner of Drexel and Sixty-third Sparks had agreed to meet me there I saw the Brownleys in a new Buick.

EXERCISE E. PARENTHESES AND BRACKETS

Supply marks of parenthesis and brackets.

1. He and his wife he was married last May expect to attend the University of Southern California next summer.
2. The Paris recitals of Walter Rummel he gave sixteen in the season of 1931-32 are usually sold out.
3. I am enclosing a money order for twelve dollars \$12.
4. Sanborn was retired for two reasons: 1 his age he is seventy-two and 2 the great shrinkage in the company's business.

5. The instructor expressed his judgment as follows: "In my opinion he G. B. Shaw is the greatest living dramatist." [Indicate that *G. B. Shaw* was inserted by the person doing the quoting.]
6. On the next page I found the following interesting information. "The first English prose tragedy Lillo's *The London Merchant* was produced in 1731." [Indicate that the designation of the play is a parenthetical explanation by the original author.]
7. I saw him again on Thursday Friday. [Cancel the word *Thursday*.]
8. Though his specialty is chemistry he has a Doctor's degree in that subject, he is also an authority in certain phases of geology.

EXERCISE F. PARENTHETICAL AND APPositional MATERIAL

Supply commas, colons, dashes, and parentheses in accordance with rules 21.14, 21.15, 21.19, 21.24, and 21.28-38.

1. By the way who is the man talking with Mr. James?
2. At the death of Elizabeth she died in 1603, the throne of England passed to James VI of Scotland a son of her bitter rival Mary Stuart. [Let the punctuation make the parenthetical passage inconspicuous.]
3. *Cyrano de Bergerac* the greatest theatrical success of modern times was produced by Edmond Rostand 1868-1918 in 1897.
4. The last time I saw him that was about a week ago he seemed despondent. [Let the punctuation indicate that the parenthetical element is emphatic.]
5. If this bill passes may it be overwhelmingly defeated! the efficiency of the schools will be greatly decreased.
6. The passage of this bill it seems to me would greatly decrease the efficiency of the schools.
7. One of the prominent questions was Who will be nominated by the Democrats for the Presidency?
8. Eight presidents of the United States Washington Jefferson Madison Monroe Harrison Tyler Taylor and Wilson were born in Virginia.
9. We agree to pay you two hundred dollars \$200 a month.
10. The orators of the American Revolution had one theme liberty.
11. Incidentally I met your brother in New York last winter.
12. Mary Stuart's tomb to be described later is in Westminster Abbey. [Make the infinitive as inconspicuous as possible.]
13. The following questions were discussed Shall the dues be lowered? How can interest be increased? Shall conventions be held annually?
14. Half the world it is said knows not how the other half lives.

PRACTICE SHEET 53

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 21. EXERCISE G. QUOTATION MARKS

Add punctuation, capitalization, and paragraphing in accordance with rules 21.17, 21.25, 21.42-52, 22.1, 21.1, 21.4, and 21.19a-e. Indicate the paragraphing by means of the paragraph sign (§).

1. The witness responded no I did not see him on the day of the murder
2. The agent says that the train will leave in five minutes
3. He asked where does Mr. Barnes live
4. Doctor Potter began his remarks thus Wordsworth says The good die young
5. The lesson for tomorrow will be Tennyson's The Charge of the Light Brigade, The Lady of Shalott, and Crossing the Bar
6. Did he actually say I refuse to do it
7. [In the following passage, an adapted extract from a novel by George Eliot, the characters consist of Tom Tulliver, his father, his mother, and his sister. Tom has just returned from work.]

Why what's up now Tom said his father you're a bit earlier than usual. Oh there was nothing more for me to do; so I came away. Well Mother! Tom went up to his mother and kissed her, a sign of unusual good-humor with him. Father said Tom when they had finished dinner do you know exactly how much money there is in the tin box? Only \$78¹ responded Mr. Tulliver you've brought less of late—but young fellows like to have their own way with their money. Yet I didn't do as I liked before *I* was of age. He spoke with rather timid discontent. Are you sure that's the sum Father said Tom I wish you would take the trouble to fetch the tin box down. Perhaps you have made a mistake. How should I make a mistake said his father sharply I've counted it often enough; but I can get it, if you won't believe me. Don't go out of the room Mother said Tom, as he saw her moving when his father had gone upstairs. And isn't Maggie to go asked Mrs. Tulliver somebody must take the things away. Just as she likes replied the young man indifferently. That was a cutting

word to Maggie. Her heart had leaped with a sudden conviction that Tom was going to tell their father the debts could be paid—and her brother would have let her be absent when the news was told! Mr. Tulliver returned and counted out the money, setting it in order on the table. Then glancing sharply at his son, he said there now! You see I was right. He paused, looking at the money with bitter despondency. There's more than a thousand lacking. It'll be a long time before *I* can save that. You're likely to bury me first. No Father said Tom, speaking with energetic decision you will live to see the debts all paid. You shall pay them with your own hand. I have nearly a thousand dollars in the bank.

8. A newspaper story ordinarily begins with a lead—usually a paragraph of one sentence giving the gist of the whole account. [Indicate that *lead* is a technical term.]

EXERCISE H. REVIEW OF PUNCTUATION

Punctuate the following material.

1. During the winter and spring the drought-stricken farmers in twenty-one states received help from three sources heavy rains the Red Cross and the Department of Agriculture at Washington D C
2. In 1920 the population of Japan was fifty-five million in 1930 it was sixty-four million an increase of nine million
3. The disputes between Japan and China over cable rights were settled peacefully the contracts being extended for another period of fourteen years
4. The Premier of Egypt presented to Mr Jardine American Minister to Egypt a memorandum which urged that the United States reduce its high tariff on onions cotton and manganese ore
5. Modern science which heretofore has hardly been recognized in the colleges of Egypt will have an important place in the curriculum of the University of Al Azhar recently reorganized by a royal decree of 101 articles
6. In spite of persistent rumors that elections would not take place voters went to the polls on January 5 there it was soon evident that the Labor Party would again control the Assembly

PRACTICE SHEET 54

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 21. EXERCISE I. REVIEW OF PUNCTUATION

Punctuate the following material. If you divide a passage into two or more sentences, be careful to capitalize properly. Add apostrophes according to rule 22.36.

7. The former king of Hejaz Arabia now seventy years of age and ill has been permitted by the British Government to travel from Cyprus where he has lived almost as a prisoner for five years to Amman where he will be under the care of his sons physician
8. In the state of Washington many Filipinos are found in agricultural pursuits and in fisheries in California they are employed chiefly in agriculture and in domestic service in Hawaii they are laborers on the sugar plantations in Alaska they work in box factories and in fish canneries
9. In the city we can not know all our neighbors hence we frequently know none of them
10. Four South American countries Brazil Argentina Peru and Bolivia experienced revolutions in 1930
11. When a Persian woman entirely alone in the courtyard of a mosque raised her veil because the day was hot a zealous Moslem priest seeing her from the roof cried out A woman has desecrated the shrine
12. Since we are not acquainted with the roads in this section why dont you slow down as we approach the signposts
13. The chief industries of this region are the following truck-farming lumbering fishing and bulb-growing
14. Having never seen salmon-fishing we are eager to go to Sand Island where great seines loaded with tons of salmon are drawn ashore
15. Those boys arent digging clams Mother theyre playing golf
16. He has one all-absorbing hobby trout-fishing
17. In the streams directly communicating with the sea and in the salt water near the coast we found salmon clams crabs sea trout and rock cod in the fresh water streams we found brook trout and steelhead trout
18. The Secretary of the Chamber of Commerce gave us these suggestions dont drive on the beach when the tide is in dont park your car near the edge of the water dont bathe in the ocean at ebb tide
19. Although the removal of a cataract is considered a simple operation

- for a trained eye surgeon the man who in 1931 operated upon the eye of the King of Siam was given much publicity
20. Denmark maintains that all of Greenland is Danish but Norway insists that eastern Greenland north of Scoresby Sound is Norwegian
 21. How do I cook clams repeated Mother I usually dip them in beaten egg roll them in flour and fry them in deep fat for three minutes
 22. As soon as I was old enough to ride my grandfather gave me a pony
 23. The Library of Congress the Capitol the museums and the Washington Monument all of these you will want to see when you are in the city of Washington
 24. France has four important rivers the Garonne and the Loire which flow into the Atlantic Ocean the Seine which follows a winding course into the English Channel and the Rhone which flows almost straight south into the Mediterranean Sea
 25. Almost two hundred and fifty years ago French engineers in order to facilitate navigation started constructing a series of canals in fact the largest canal in France one connecting the Garonne River with the Mediterranean Sea was built at that time
 26. The Garonne valley is famous for its semitropical vegetation and the river is known far and wide for its beautiful scenery
 27. Although France is not so large as the state of Texas it has as great a variety of scenery and climate as has the United States
 28. Most of the boundary lines of France have been made by nature the English Channel on the north the Atlantic Ocean on the west the Pyrenees Mountains and the Mediterranean Sea on the south the Alps Mountains and the Rhine River on the east
 29. Five countries Belgium Luxemburg Germany Switzerland and Italy bound France on the east
 30. For a relatively small country France has a variety of products wheat is raised in the north grapes which need a mild climate thrive in the central and southern sections much silk is manufactured in the southern part where the warm climate makes the raising of silkworms profitable and coal is mined in the district that borders on Belgium
 31. An old Chinese proverb says the fool questions others the wise man questions himself
 32. The Chinese have this proverb muddy water unwisely stirred grows darker still left alone it clears itself
 33. After promising to help he left me in the lurch
 34. What a long dreary journey

PRACTICE SHEET 55

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 22. EXERCISE A. CAPITALIZATION

Capitalize the following:

William the Conqueror; grant street; Independence Boulevard; American high schools; the department of history; the freshmen; A sophomore; the class of 1937; the Klondike region; Allegheny Mountains; Hudson Bay; Isthmus of Panama; the capital of the Hawaiian Islands; the North Pole; southern Methodist University; grant high school; A college; the Panhandle state; the west side [of Chicago]; Western New York; the industries of the east; the south; the west; the western hemisphere; the far east; fifty miles west of Kansas City; the West Indies; a Baptist; the Sumner Avenue Presbyterian Church; the coast of Spain; the African coast; the National Education Association; the study of sociology, Greek, Latin, German, zoölogy, education, engineering, and law; professor Wise, head of the economics department; the secretary of state; a postmaster; the attorney general; a democrat [member of the party]; physics 73; the holy land; the planet Mercury; the moon; Orion; Pentecost; the civil war [1861-65]; the dark ages; the romantic movement; spring; fall; the seventeenth century; the almighty; the holy spirit; my mother; Aunt Sarah; holy writ; old testament; proverbs [book of the Bible]; an Italian; English literature; Morocco leather; India rubber; 746 watts; gentlemen [salutatory address of a letter]; Enoch A. Bryan, A.M., LL.D.; Howard Adams, Sr.; ex-governor Johnson; Butler's *the way of all flesh*; Cather's *death comes for the archbishop*; Shakespeare's *Romeo and Juliet*; Keats's "ode on a Grecian urn."

EXERCISE B. ABBREVIATIONS

After the abbreviations that are proper and desirable in general writing, place *yes*. Write out the others in correct form. Include in the latter group those which are permissible but are preferably avoided, enclosing them in marks of parenthesis.

Mr. _____	Pa. _____
lbs. _____	Eng. _____
Calif. _____	Ph.D. _____
Fri. _____	K.K.K. _____
Rev. A. C. Rice _____	hrs. _____
math. _____	Hdqrs. _____
N. Y. _____	B. C. _____
Y.M.C.A. _____	A. D. _____
Mrs. _____	abbrev. _____
Str. _____	A. M. _____
Hon. Gray _____	P. M. _____
Prof. Stone _____	i. e. _____
etc. _____	this A. M. _____
Episc. _____	Acad. _____
Oct. _____	exam. _____
Hist. Dept. _____	a wk. _____
mdse. _____	Rev. Waters _____
No. 781 _____	Prot. _____

PRACTICE SHEET 56

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 22. EXERCISE C. NUMBERS

After each number that is correct for formal writing (if not beginning a sentence), place *yes*. Write out the others in proper form.

300 bales _____	\$5.75 _____
322 bales _____	\$17,492.00 _____
in 1932 _____	\$0.27 _____
10,624 words _____	84 acres _____
17¢ _____	Chapter IV _____
\$7,000,000,000 _____	page 68 _____
8 o'clock _____	Volume VII _____
8:35 A. M. _____	\$69 _____
on May 16, 1937 _____	100 cars _____
\$5.00 _____	6 days _____

EXERCISE D. NUMBERS

Correct errors in the writing of numbers.

1. The company has engaged 15 salesmen, 6 typists, and 3 bookkeepers.
2. He spent \$18.75 for books, \$12.50 for laboratory fees, and \$15.00 for room rent.
3. \$2300 must be paid next week.
4. Haynes raised 1872 bushels of wheat, eight hundred bushels of oats, and 870 bushels of corn.

5. The Battle of Bunker Hill was fought on June the seventeenth, seven-
teen hundred and seventy-five.
6. I paid twenty-two dollars and fifteen cents for this overcoat.
7. Hostilities ceased on November 11th, 1918.
8. 1718 voters are registered.
9. I am nineteen (19) years of age.

EXERCISE E. ITALICS

Capitalize and use quotation marks and italics in accordance with rules 21.49, 22.3m, and 22.19-24.

the word so	a piece of string [short story]
the New York daily news	bonbon
the portrait of a lady [novel]	two o's
Beethoven's third symphony	He misspelled definite.
Shelley's to a skylark	Beowulf [long poem]
Verdi's Otello [opera]	the Maryland [battleship]
ibid.	science and modern life [essay]
the Europa [ship]	modern essays [book]
Sheridan's the rivals [play]	intolerance [movie]
sun of my soul [hymn]	etc.
op. cit.	witches' dance [short piano piece]
the Saturday evening post	elements of physics [textbook]
my country, 'tis of thee	Paul Revere's ride
Wanderlust [German]	the banker's magazine
the Baltimore sun	the silver box [play]
the lungs [chapter of a book]	manners [magazine article]
a priori	George Washington [book]
beau monde [French]	the sheaves [short poem]
the faerie queene [long poem]	memoriter [Latin]
chacun à son goût [French]	land drainage [book]
school and society [magazine]	the outstation [short story]
Ewig-Weibliche [German]	in our stars [magazine article]
attention [chapter of a book]	Ivanhoe

PRACTICE SHEET 57

Name..... Date.....

CHAPTER 22. EXERCISE F. COMPOUNDS

Insert hyphens in expressions that should be hyphenated, and join by means of curved lines each pair or group of words that should be written solid (thus: book-store).

a well-known man	never the less
The man is well-known.	a highly probable event
twenty-six	mother-in-law
all-right	any-body
play-wright	shoe-maker
book-keeper	school room
in-spite-of	base ball
a five-dollar bill	to night
a stool pigeon	steam boat
ex-Governor Smith	self-reliance
seven-eighths	a send-off
the twenty-second time	vice-dean
eight-thirty fifths	Old-English literature
in as much as	a ten-inning game
a two hour course	two-fold
The credit is two hours.	a two-faced person
grand-mother	He is two faced.
great uncle	fifteen-sixteenths
great grand-mother	lumber mill
a carefully selected group	a much abused privilege
bed room	This privilege is much abused.
recitation room	an out of the way place
re cover [cover again]	a liberty loving people

EXERCISE G. SYLLABICATION

Leave unmarked the words that should never be divided. Draw a vertical line through each of the others at the most desirable point for division, enclosing in marks of parenthesis the words that should preferably not be divided in script or in type-written material (see 22.30).

straight	expressed	pawnshop
about	plausibility	charitable
magistrate	concrete	supernatural

algebra	return	dislocate
inverted	enough	pianist
beginning	ramification	gentleman
hydrophobia	rambling	resisting
grandfather	integral	thirty-seven
superintendent	generalship	literature
stressed	omitted	through
phonograph	accented	remainder
notwithstanding	seventeen	detained

EXERCISE H. THE APOSTROPHE

Write contractions of the following:

- | | |
|------------------|----------------|
| 1. do not _____ | were not _____ |
| should not _____ | have not _____ |
| can not _____ | is not _____ |
| let us _____ | we have _____ |
| they are _____ | she had _____ |
| he is _____ | we are _____ |

Insert apostrophes in the following. In sentences 7 and 8, also add *s* if necessary.

2. You're too late. Don't you know it's after eight o'clock?
3. Miss Hutton must borrow somebody else's book, because she has lost hers.
4. Do not make *us* like *us* or *7s* like *rs*.
5. Too many *and's* and *so's* weaken one's style.
6. We read Homer's *Iliad*, Demosthenes' orations, and Plato's *Republic*.
7. This perfume has lost its fragrance. I bought it at Bryan and Miller's special sale last month. [One store.]
8. I met Arthur and Karl's parents yesterday. [Indicate that Arthur and Karl have different parents.]
9. We have bargains in ladies' hats, men's shoes, and boys' suits.

PRACTICE SHEET 58

Name Date

CHAPTER 23. EXERCISE A. WORDINESS

Eliminate any unnecessary words in the following sentences.

1. Helen Keller was a little girl who became blind and deaf at the age of eighteen months.
2. The lawyer's sympathy was awakened and aroused when a young woman who was married complained of being urged to go out on "blind dates" with business men who were visiting the city.
3. As soon as additional facts are obtained, they will be presented immediately.
4. The main and principal aim is to effect a general improvement throughout the whole school.
5. The cars both came to the intersection at the same time.
6. As to Miss White's school work and disciplinary strength, I found her steadily growing stronger in discipline and teaching ability.
7. Our town is surrounded on all sides by high hills which tower above us.
8. From whence he came they were powerless and unable to discover or ascertain.
9. The house was violently shaken to its foundation, and the barn was totally annihilated.
10. There is a table built over the engine.
11. In my summer months of vacation during my high school years I worked every summer.
12. He is of the typical student type.
13. I have never done much reading outside of necessary reading required for school work.
14. I meet many different types of people.

EXERCISE B. ELLIPTICAL CLAUSES

Make the following sentences more concise by changing the adverbial clauses to elliptical clauses.

1. When he was seen by the reporters, he was eating pork chops in a private dining room at the hotel.
2. The employee himself is taken care of by the health insurance fund, into which he pays when he is in employment.
3. When Regan is asked how much she loves her father, she makes violent protestation of her devotion.
4. While I was swimming in the lake last Sunday, I was almost drowned.
5. If a grizzly bear is aroused, he becomes a very formidable antagonist.
6. While I was in England, I visited the birthplace of Shakespeare.
7. Although he is blind, he is leading his class in scholarship.
8. When the door is closed, it is absolutely hidden.

EXERCISE C. DANGLING ELLIPTICAL CLAUSES

Revise the sentences containing dangling elliptical clauses. If you find a correct sentence, write C. before it.

1. Though dark and entirely too small, we must use this room as a physics laboratory.
2. When seven years old, my family moved to New Orleans.
3. The jury should acquit him if innocent.
4. When prepared carefully, no one can find a more delicious dessert.
5. While asleep, a pig ate most of the man's apples.
6. Though inwardly angry, his face betrayed no emotion.
7. When near the end of our journey, the gasoline gave out.
8. His aunt gave him piano lessons while still a small boy.

PRACTICE SHEET 59

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 24. EXERCISE A. EMPHASIS BY SUBORDINATION

In each of the following, emphasize the more important of the independent clauses by subordinating the other. Be careful to punctuate properly.

1. My father's business prospered, and in 1919 he opened a new store.
2. I have not had many thrilling experiences, but I may be able to find a few interesting things to tell.
3. My father owns a stock ranch in the Blue Mountains, and he raises high-class horses.
4. Heavy responsibilities are put upon a nurse; hence she must have steadiness and self-reliance.
5. My oldest sister is very generous, but at times she shows a very bad temper.
6. I had reached the helpless age of six, and I was sent to a public grade school.
7. I had just graduated from high school, and my next desire was to get a college education.

EXERCISE B. CORRECTION OF COMMA SPLICES BY SUBORDINATION

Correct the following comma splices by subordinating the less important ideas.

8. The Count (in Verdi's opera *Il Trovatore*) wants Leonora but so does Manrico; so there is a triangle.
9. At night the animals had to be fed and rested; therefore a stop was made from sunset to sunrise.
10. The average life of a honey bee during the working season is only

six weeks; consequently, new bees are needed continually to replace the old ones.

11. The eagle nest was over a hundred feet from the ground, so I did not attempt to reach it by climbing the cypress tree.

EXERCISE C. COMBINATION OF CHOPPY SENTENCES

Combine the following choppy sentences by subordinating the less important ideas.

1. The present economic pressure has become a grave social problem. It requires the most careful study.
2. The car was going slowly. Nevertheless, it rocked and swayed over the unimproved road.
3. The rest of the group returned from their swim. They were both surprised and pleased to find the luncheon ready.
4. Foolish expenditures often bring disaster. Consequently, one should use a budgeting system. The purpose of this is to make provision for the purchase of the most necessary articles.
5. The teacher plays a chord. The children decide on the notes composing it.
6. Charles Lamb wrote an essay entitled "A Bachelor's Complaint of the Behaviour of Married People." He was unmarried.
7. Two of our best players are injured. We have little hope of winning the game.
8. In the rocks underneath the water are holes, or "kettles." These holes are caused by the continual wearing of the water against the soft limestone.

PRACTICE SHEET 60

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 24. EXERCISE D. THE STRINGY SENTENCE

Correct the following stringy sentences by rewriting them.

1. He came in and sat down and began to look at the paper, and his little daughter asked him why he would never play any more, and the father said he was worried by business.
2. Jack played a good game of football, but he did not receive the support he needed, and the guards were all slow in blocking, but he finally made a touchdown almost unaided, and then George didn't kick goal.
3. His car was running well, and he had just had the valves ground and the timer adjusted, but he had forgotten to have his tires checked, and so he had a blow-out just beyond New Haven.
4. He studied as hard as he could and never went out with a girl oftener than once a week, and seldom wasted time playing bridge or poker, but he did not know how to concentrate but would sit day dreaming at his desk, and so in spite of all the time he spent at his books and the good times he missed, he did not make his grades and we were sorry because he was a nice boy.
5. The trout-fishing season opens on the first of April, and many times I have spent that whole day beside some stream and caught only one under-sized fish, and come home tired and wet, and perhaps that's because it's April Fool Day, because I always catch fish later on in the spring.

EXERCISE E. RHETORICAL VALUE OF VERBALS

Improve the following passages by using verbals. See that you attain emphasis by subordinating the less important ideas.

1. The library is small and overcrowded and so some books are stored in other buildings.
2. The man trudged past every evening. He carried a gold-headed stick.
3. I was in search of fire wood. I walked along the river bank. I carried an axe.
4. I wrote extensive notes on the books. I spent twenty hours on one of them.
5. I was sleepy from watching the bonfire, and I skipped laboratory in my major subject.
6. I had spent all my money, and I couldn't go to the game.
7. The school was small, and almost anyone could make the team.
8. He read on for several pages, and he came to an epigram he had frequently heard.
9. The thief left the door open. He ran across the lawn to his automobile.
10. I kept my eye on the largest tree. I crossed the creek and quickened my step.
11. All the students began to clap, and they kept time with the band.
12. I went down the street, and I noticed a strange automobile.
13. Carlyle's *Sartor Resartus* was first published in Boston. It is now a classic.

PRACTICE SHEET 61

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 25. EXERCISE A. OFFENSIVE REPETITION OF WORDS

Improve the following passages by eliminating the offensive repetition. Guard carefully against the use of pronouns for which the antecedents are not clear.

1. Mr. Smith and Mr. Duncan had a warm argument on Prohibition yesterday. Mr. Smith maintained that Prohibition has been a failure, and Mr. Duncan maintained that Prohibition has been a success.
2. In Sheridan's *The Rivals*, Captain Absolute refuses to marry an unnamed girl suggested by his father, Sir Anthony. Sir Anthony becomes very angry at the Captain and vows that he (Sir Anthony) will never talk to him (the Captain) again.
3. Mr. Denton is greatly interested in chemistry, and his interest in chemistry is likely to make him a successful chemistry teacher.
4. The teachers will return the themes to the students with suggestions for revision. The students should revise the themes and return them to the teachers promptly.

EXERCISE B. FAULTY REFERENCE OF PRONOUNS

Wherever you find faulty reference, improve the passage by making the antecedent immediately obvious or by eliminating the need for the pronoun. Avoid offensive repetition and awkward constructions. If you find a correct sentence, place C. before it.

1. Unferth said to Beowulf that he had been defeated by Breca in a swimming contest.
2. They don't send you to jail for speeding.
3. I walk two miles every day because I think it is good for the soul.
4. I skipped two grades of my elementary work, which I fear was not to my advantage.

5. Eating pie with your knife shows poor breeding.
6. If a person has much material to be copied, they should have it typed. It is easier to read than script, and it saves time.
7. I wrote the theme hastily, which caused a low grade.
8. One should be careful how they spend their money.
9. It is Satan who tempts us to do wrong—from skipping church on the Sabbath to murdering your grandmother.
10. The professor opens the door, which produces a draft.
11. I should like to be a football coach, but I fear I do not have the proper qualifications for it.
12. The ground was frozen so hard that you could hear your footsteps half a mile away.
13. Everybody likes to see their name in the paper.
14. It always gives one pleasure to be with a popular student. They have an interest in everything and make you enjoy yourself.
15. The rabbit seems a harmless animal, but in some regions it is necessary to exterminate it.
16. The incident clearly shows that you should keep your nose out of other people's business.
17. After a person has been dragged through court, their reputation is ruined.
18. The juggler keeps six metal balls in the air, which is hard.
19. It says in the geography that England is chiefly a manufacturing nation.

PRACTICE SHEET 62

Name _____

Date _____

CHAPTER 25. EXERCISE C VARIETY OF SENTENCE TYPES AND SENTENCE BEGINNINGS

In the first column at the left of the following student theme on "The Columbia and the Dry Falls," specify the type of each sentence (*S*, *Cl*, *Cd*), in connection with the complex sentences, also indicate, in parentheses the kind of each dependent clause (*Adj*, *Adv*, *N*) and its position (using *b* for beginning, *m* for middle, and *e* for end) In the second column, classify the sentence beginnings (*Subj*, *Prep'l phr*, *Prep'l ger phr*, *Verb*, and so forth) (disregarding adjectives)

	Sentence Type	Sentence Beginning	
1.	Cx. (<i>Adj.</i> — <i>e.</i>)	Part.	1) Looking down upon the Dry Falls of the Grand Coulee from above, I conjured a mind picture of the majestic scene in the Cenozoic era, when they must have been a booming, crashing cataract much more tremendous than Niagara 2) How solemn must have been the beauty of the mighty Columbia tumbling downward almost a thousand feet to the jumbled rocks below' 3) The turbulent river must have been almost unmanageable, turning and twisting in its bed until finally it broke loose, free to wander on, cutting a new path in its triumphant journey 4) After seeing the impressive Dry Falls, I doubt that man will ever shackle the Columbia 5) That slow, sullen stream writhes and twists like a drowsy python 6) In the rainy season it comes to life 7) Thundering, shoving, it sweeps everything before it as it tears its way to the sea 8) Perhaps the giant dam will hold it but dams have broken before 9) Every inch of that wall will have a thousand fingers clawing at it 10) If there is a defect in the concrete, the Columbia once more will be free and unhampered 11) The Dry Falls, splendid in defeat, mutely testify that Nature was unable to control the great river 12) Will the man-made dam hold the Columbia, or is it also destined to look splendid in defeat?
2	_____	_____	
3	_____	_____	
4	_____	_____	
5	_____	_____	
6	_____	_____	
7	_____	_____	
8	_____	_____	
9	_____	_____	
10	_____	_____	
11	_____	_____	
12	_____	_____	

Note to the instructor Each student may also be asked to analyze some of his own writing in the manner of this exercise.

EXERCISE D. VARIETY OF SENTENCE TYPES AND SENTENCE BEGINNINGS

In the first column at the left, specify the type of each sentence (*S.*, *Cx.*, *Cd.*, *Cd. Cx.*). In connection with the complex and the compound-complex sentences, also indicate, in parentheses, the kind of each dependent clause (*Adj.*, *Adv.*, *N.*) and its position (using *b.* for *beginning*, *m.* for *middle*, and *e.* for *end*); if a sentence has two dependent clauses, write the classification for the second immediately below the line. In the second column, classify the sentence beginnings (*Subj.*, *Dir.*, *Obj.*, *Adv.*, *Cl.*, *Part.*, *Trans.*, *Exp.*, and so forth) (disregarding adjectives and treating *but* at the beginning of a sentence as a transitional expression).

<i>Sentence Type</i>	<i>Sentence Beginning</i>	From Hazlitt's "On the Fear of Death"
1. <u>Cx. (Adj.—e.)</u>	<u>Expl.</u>	1) There is usually one pang added voluntarily and unnecessarily to the fear of death, by our affecting to compassionate the loss which others will have in us.
2. _____	_____	2) If that were all, we might reasonably set our minds at ease. 3) The pathetic exhortation on country tombstones, "Grieve not for me, my wife and children dear," &c. is for the most part speedily followed to the letter. 4) We do not leave so great a void in society as we are inclined to imagine, partly to magnify our own importance, and partly to console ourselves by sympathy. 5) Even in the same family the gap is not so great; the wound closes up sooner than we should expect. 6) Nay, <i>our room</i> is not infrequently thought better than <i>our company</i> . 7) People walk along the streets the day after our deaths just as they did before, and the crowd is not diminished. 8) While we were living, the world seemed in a manner to exist only for us, for our delight and amusement, because it contributed to them. 9) But our hearts cease to beat, and it goes on as [it is] usual, and thinks no more about us than it did in our life-time. 10) The million are devoid of sentiment, and care as little for you or me as if we belonged to the moon. 11) We live the week over in the Sunday's paper, or are decently interred in some obituary at the month's end!
3. <u>Cx. (N.—m.)</u>	<u>Subj.</u>	
4. _____	_____	
5. _____	_____	
6. _____	_____	
7. _____	_____	
8. _____	_____	
9. _____	_____	
10. _____	_____	
11. _____	_____	

PRACTICE SHEET 63

Name Date

CHAPTER 26. EXERCISE A. PARALLEL STRUCTURE

In the following sentences from student themes, underline the parallel expressions. In the space at the left, name the kind of the parallel elements.

- | | |
|-------------------|--|
| <u>Inf.-Subj.</u> | 1. <u>To be able</u> to produce something that no one else has ever conceived, <u>to delve</u> into the mysteries of matter, and <u>to attempt</u> to unveil the secrets of the universe have always been my aspirations. |
| _____ | 2. In 1926 Daniel Guggenheim placed in a Foundation four million dollars to be used "to make the airplane safe, popular, and regularly available." |
| _____ | 3. This was to be accomplished in four ways: academic instruction, scientific research, commercial development, and public education. |
| _____ | 4. <i>Microbe Hunters</i> is tremendously fascinating as well as instructive and inspiring. |
| _____ | 5. The English manorial system is interesting not because it was a social order that existed several hundred years ago, not because it was totally different from anything within the range of our actual experience, but because these crude villages formed the nucleus of our present Anglo-Saxon civilization. |
| _____ | 6. He explained to us what the plan was and why it had not been successful. |
| _____ | 7. From Grecian architecture the Romans took the idea of columns; from Egyptian, the idea of pyramidal forms. |
| _____ | 8. In this story Joseph Conrad surely carries out his avowed purpose: "to make you hear, to make you feel, to make you see." |
| _____ | 9. This game holds a charm not only for the player but also for the observer. |

EXERCISE B. PARALLEL STRUCTURE

Underline the parallel expressions in the following extracts. Write 1 above each member of the first group, 2 above each member of the second group, and so forth.

1. "With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right, as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in; to bind up the nation's wounds; to care for him who shall have borne the battle, and for his widow, and his orphan—to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and lasting peace among ourselves, and with all nations."

2. "But, in a larger sense, we cannot dedicate—we cannot consecrate—we cannot hallow—this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it far above our poor power to add or detract. The world will little note nor long remember what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us, the living, rather, to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us—that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion; that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain; that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom; and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth."

PRACTICE SHEET 64

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 26. EXERCISE C. PARALLEL STRUCTURE

Revise the sentences containing errors in parallelism (see rule 26.1). If you find a correct sentence, write *C.* before it.

1. Beatrice is upright, intellectual, and has great strength of character.
2. Wagner's *Rheingold* tells how Wotan was god in Valhalla and about his redeeming from the giants Freia, the goddess of youth and beauty.
3. We have found Mr. James a very successful teacher and with a high moral character.
4. The story is interesting, realistic, and one that appeals to every person.
5. Hannele Mattern's life was very lonely and one of intense fear.
6. The Misses Huxtable are colorless, unprogressive, lack a sense of humor, and their general bearing is rather childish.
7. He is intelligent, an omnivorous reader, and very eager to succeed in his studies.
8. He was respected by his acquaintances, admired by his friends, and loved by his employees.
9. To repair the old house would cost nearly as much as building a new one.
10. Many things about this magazine interest me: first, its cover is very attractive with its futuristic designs and bright colors; second, for its unusual and quaint stories; and, third, because I like to read accounts of foreign lands.

EXERCISE D. PARALLELISM

Revise the sentences containing errors in parallelism. If you find a correct sentence, write C. before it. Consult the following rules. 14.3, 26.1-5.

1. George likes the society of women and to have many dates.
2. The United States has had a protective tariff for many years; in Great Britain the policy of free trade was long maintained.
3. The murdered man was identified as Hugo Rathman, father of seven children and whose wife is an invalid.
4. He is an admirable young man, a good student, dependable, and has an excellent character.
5. The course in Victorian Poetry will be taught by Doctor Stromer, Professor of English and who is writing a biography of Browning.
6. He is not only a poor loser but also plays unfairly.
7. The part of Faust was sung by Martinelli, that of Mephistopheles by Rothier, and Gall was the Marguerite.
8. She spends all her time shopping and on her wardrobe.
9. He neither fears God nor man.
10. The main points of my talk will be as follows: I, Medicine offers many vocational opportunities; II, Qualifications of a physician; III, Financial rewards.
11. The semester fees quoted on the preceding page, and which include room, meals, and tuition, must be paid in advance.
12. I groped my way through the dark forest, and not even knowing whether I was going in the right direction.
13. He is both a star football player and a brilliant student.
14. He was sitting at his desk and in a pensive mood.

PRACTICE SHEET 65

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 27. EXERCISE A. BALANCED AND PARALLEL STRUCTURE

Underscore the passages showing balanced and parallel structure, and join with a curved line (or with curved lines) the ones belonging to each group. Example: We must hang together, or we shall hang separately. Notice that sentence 9 has parallelism within parallelism.

1. To err is human, to forgive divine.—Pope, “An Essay on Criticism.”
2. Could the England of 1685 be, by some magical process, set before our eyes, we should not know one landscape in a hundred or one building in ten thousand. The country gentleman would not recognize his own fields. The inhabitant of the town would not recognize his own street.—Macaulay, *History of England*.
3. Your young men shall see visions, and your old men shall dream dreams.—Bible.
4. It [1431] was a memorable year for France on other and higher considerations. A great-hearted girl and a poor-hearted boy made, the one her last, the other his first appearance on the public stage of that unhappy country. On the 30th of May the ashes of Joan of Arc were thrown into the Seine, and on the 2d of December our Henry Sixth made his Joyous Entry dismally enough into disaffected and depopulating Paris.—Stevenson.
5. On one side was the young Frederick II; on the other, the young queen Maria Theresa. Maria Theresa was beautiful, emotional, and proud; Frederick was domineering, cynical, and always rational. The Austrian princess was a firm believer in Catholic Christianity; the Prussian king was a friend of Voltaire and a devotee of skepticism.—Hayes, *History of Modern Europe*.
6. From Bergson to Croce is an impossible transition; there is hardly a parallel in all their lives. Bergson is a mystic who translates his visions into deceptive clarity; Croce is a sceptic with an almost German gift for obscurity. Bergson is religiously-minded and yet

talks like a thorough-going evolutionist; Croce is an anti-clerical who writes like an American Hegelian. Bergson is a French Jew who inherits the traditions of Spinoza and Lamarck; Croce is an Italian Catholic who has kept nothing of his religion except its scholasticism and its devotion to beauty.—Durant, *The Story of Philosophy*.

7. When the Western trader has gone to China to endeavor to create new desires in the mind of the Chinese; when the Western diplomat has gone with the endeavor to change the attitude of the Chinese on any matter of controversy or of negotiation with reference to his own country; when the missionary has gone with the idea of persuading the Chinese to change his mind with reference to the most intimate of views, religious beliefs; it is astonishing that trader, diplomat, or missionary should have paid so little attention to what the Chinese actually thought or to their ways of thinking.—Paul Monroe, *China: A Nation in Evolution*.
8. It was the best of times; it was the worst of times. It was the age of wisdom; it was the age of foolishness. It was the epoch of belief; it was the epoch of incredulity. It was the season of Light; it was the season of Darkness. It was the spring of hope; it was the winter of despair. We had everything before us; we had nothing before us. We were all going direct to Heaven; we were all going direct the other way—in short, the period was so far like the present period that some of its noisiest authorities insisted on its being received, for good or for evil, in the superlative degree of comparison only.—Dickens, *A Tale of Two Cities*.
9. Upon this I began to consider with myself what innumerable multitudes of people lay confused together under the pavement of that ancient cathedral [Westminster Abbey]; how men and women, friends and enemies, priests and soldiers, monks and prebendaries, were crumbled amongst one another, and blended together in the same common mass; how beauty, strength, and youth, with old age, weakness, and deformity, lay undistinguished in the same promiscuous heap of matter.—*Spectator*, No. 26

PRACTICE SHEET 66

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 27. EXERCISE B. BALANCED SENTENCES

Make the following passages balanced and parallel, combining sentences wherever advisable. See rules 27.4, 14.3, and 14.4. Avoid wordiness and unpleasant repetition; and be careful to alter the punctuation and the capitalization as required by the structural changes that you introduce.

1. Loeffler discovered diphtheria bacillus in the throats of patients.

Diphtheria poison made by this bacillus was discovered by Emile Roux. Emil Behring discovered how to make diphtheria antitoxin. All three were young scientists of the last century.

2. Recently scientists have proved that insects carry disease. Theobald

Smith discovered that ticks carry Texas fever to cattle. The tsetse fly, so David Bruce found, carries sleeping sickness. That a certain kind of mosquito carries malaria was proved by Grassi; Walter Reed proved that another kind of mosquito carries yellow fever.

3. Pasteur and Koch were very different in their personalities and in their methods of research. Koch was systematic, coldly logical, so critical of his experiments that he anticipated the objections of other scientists, so patient that he repeated his experiments scores of times before he announced results, and so frank that he admitted his mistakes as coldly as he announced his triumphs. Pasteur hurried from one kind of experiment to another, came to quick conclusions, and accidentally stumbled on valuable ideas. He was impetuous and enthusiastic. He was so vain that he boasted of his triumphs and kept his failures secret.

4. A thoughtful Chinese observer, familiar with the Occident, has said that the West is superior to China in the comforts of life, in the position of women, and in the mechanical and scientific control of environment; but that Chinese food, admiration for learning, and contemplative attitude toward life are better than in the West.
5. Rupert Brooke, who died in 1915, wrote idealistically of the war in his *Nineteen-Fourteen Sonnets*; the horrors of the war are described in the poems of Wilfred Owen, who enlisted in 1915 and was killed in action one week before the Armistice was signed.

EXERCISE C. EMPHASIS BY STRUCTURE

Make the following sentences emphatic by improving the structure. See Chapter 27, § B.

1. A little stream was seen dashing down the mountainside.
2. At the next filling-station, they told us that the distance to Moline was only twenty-five miles.
3. McCall is a small village with a population of perhaps two hundred, and it is situated in the northern part of the state on the shore of a beautiful lake.
4. In old China, education was for the purpose of preserving the past. Western people think of education chiefly as a means of influencing the future.
5. A warden should be the best-trained and best-prepared person in the field, because his position demands a knowledge of human nature, that he have an insight into the complexities of social life, and he must appreciate the possibilities of personal development.

PRACTICE SHEET 67

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 27. EXERCISE D. EMPHASIS BY STRUCTURE

Make the following sentences emphatic by improving the structure. See Chapter 27, § B.

1. To be successful, I should possess the following qualities: a willingness to endure hardships and to perform a task whether it is pleasant or not, fairness in dealing with anyone whom forestry affects, and I must be acquainted with the commercial side of forestry.
2. Anael is very religious and she firmly believes Djabal is a god, and she waits like a child for him to change his form, but she learns that he is a mere man, and her reaction is so great that she eventually dies.
3. Artists have reason to thank the machine age, because machinery has eased the work of the average person, leaving him more time for cultural amusements.
4. Artificial respiration is to be given when a person is suffocated, in a drowning state, hanging, or electrical shock.
5. From the movies I knew college as a place where "divine" dancers vied for queenly attractiveness and the largest number of suitors; there star athletes had never a worry about unsatisfactory grades; studies were a necessary evil, but little attention had to be given to them.
6. Which is preferable—yesterday, when the gentleman considered and respected the lady, or today's thoughtlessness and disregard for courtesy?

EXERCISE E. KEY-WORDS

Underline the "key-words" in the following sentences:

1. Knowledge is power.
2. Fortune and love are blind.—Proverb.
3. Flattery is the food of fools.—Swift.
4. Envy does not enter an empty house.—Danish proverb.
5. Your enemy makes you wise.—Italian proverb.
6. Make not your sauce until you have caught your fish.—Proverb.
7. Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man, writing an exact man.—Bacon.
8. Read not to contradict, nor to believe, but to weigh and consider.—Bacon.
9. The pig prefers mud to clean water.—Latin proverb.
10. What lies behind all art is the principle of wonder and of arrested attention; it may be the sense of fitness, of strangeness, of completeness, of effective effort.—Benson.
11. He has the gift of vision, but not the gift of thought.—A. G. Gardiner.
12. Now and then be idle; sit and think.—Sheridan.
13. The more a man knows the more he is inclined to be modest.
14. The darkness of death is like the evening twilight: it makes all objects appear more lovely to the dying.—Richter.
15. A lazy ox is little better for the goad.—Proverb.
16. He who would gather honey must bear the stings of the bees.—Dutch proverb.
17. The student in the one case becomes a part of an organization whose ideal is discipline; the other enters a régime whose watchword is individual freedom.—Henry Smith Pritchett.
18. Kings will be tyrants from policy, when subjects are rebels from principle.
19. Not in war, not in wealth, not in tyranny, was there any happiness to be found for them.—Ruskin.
20. Slavishness is the greatest deterrent, perhaps, to the development of oneself as a cultured being.—Gerould.
21. The side shows [of college] need not be abolished. They need not be cast out or even discredited. But they must be subordinated. They must be put in their natural place as diversions, and ousted from their present dignity and pre-eminence as occupations.—Woodrow Wilson.

PRACTICE SHEET 68

Name.....

Date.....

CHAPTER 27. EXERCISE F. LOOSE AND PERIODIC SENTENCES

In the numbered spaces below, classify the sentences of the following paragraph as loose, periodic, or almost periodic.

- 1) About thirty years before this time, a Mahommedan soldier had begun to distinguish himself in the wars of Southern India. 2) His education had been neglected; his extraction was humble. 3) His father had been a petty officer of revenue; his grandfather a wandering dervise. 4) But though thus meanly descended, though ignorant even of the alphabet, the adventurer had no sooner been placed at the head of a body of troops than he approved himself a man born for conquest and command. 5) Among the crowd of chiefs who were struggling for a share of India, none could compare with him in the qualities of the captain and the statesman. 6) He became a general; he became a sovereign. 7) Out of the fragments of old principalities, which had gone to pieces in the general wreck, he formed for himself a great, compact, and vigorous empire. 8) That empire he ruled with the ability, severity, and vigilance of Louis the Eleventh. 9) Licentious in his pleasures, implacable in his revenge, he had yet enlargement of mind enough to perceive how much the prosperity of subjects adds to the strength of governments. 10) He was an oppressor; but he had at least the merit of protecting his people against all oppression except his own. 11) He was now in extreme old age, but his intellect was as clear, and his spirit as high, as in the prime of manhood. 12) Such was the great Hyder Ali, the founder of the Mahommedan kingdom of Mysore, and the most formidable enemy with whom the English conquerors of India have ever had to contend.—Macaulay, "Essay on Warren Hastings."
1. _____
 2. _____
 3. _____
 4. _____
 5. _____
 6. _____
 7. _____
 8. _____
 9. _____
 10. _____
 11. _____
 12. _____

EXERCISE G. LOOSE AND PERIODIC SENTENCES

Change the following loose sentences into periodic sentences.

1. Pilsudski was a German prisoner until the German overthrow and revolution in 1918.
2. Pilsudski had the united support of the Allies throughout his very strenuous campaign
3. Poland has increased her territory under his guiding hand and his ready sword.
4. It is interesting that most of the offices of state are held by people of humble birth who have become highly educated.
5. This extraordinary soldier and diplomat allied himself with Austria until the Russian overthrow was complete, and then he turned his devastating influence upon Germany.
6. Most of the large industries are owned and controlled by the government, because there is little private capital for private industry.
7. The ingenuity of the Poles is well displayed in the way they did the seemingly impossible thing of building another port out of that small fishing village.
8. She has found it necessary to maintain a very large and expensive army, because of her greatly increased territory.
9. Every family in Mrs. Schmidt's neighborhood has received a sample of her famous German cooking at some time or other.
10. The Chinese make a lavish use of flowers in many of their public and religious ceremonies, on occasions of marriage, death, and burial, as well as in the decoration of the temples and their private dwellings.
11. The United States received no part in these spoils, Woodrow Wilson's policy being to seek no gains.

PRACTICE SHEET 69

Name..... Date.....

CHAPTER 27. EXERCISE H. EMPHASIS BY POSITION

Make the following sentences emphatic by placing the important elements in prominent positions.

1. A woman was fit only for doing the drudgery of the home and the farm, according to the standard of that time.
2. It seemed that shadows were lurking in the corners, ready at any moment to spring forth into a "dance of the shades," thus contributing to my restlessness.
3. I was furiously angry; I was annoyed; I was disappointed.
4. Temperament implies a sensitiveness to fine things in both the physical world and the mental realms, in my estimation.
5. Many kings in the Middle Ages issued proclamations against football in order to protect the warlike pastime of archery.
6. Ann was solemn and stiff or vivacious and charming, according to her mood.
7. However, marriage alliances were not the only means adopted by Henry VII to strengthen his house. [Imagine that a passage has preceded.]
8. Henry VI was a mere infant when he became King of England in 1422.
9. I will never consent to that. [Emphasize *never*—27.12.]
10. He soon gave up football, feeling that he would be unable to make the team.
11. I warned him, threatened him, advised him.
12. We finally decided to leave this farm, the crops having failed for three successive years.
13. He insisted that the prisoner was deceitful, blood-thirsty, and selfish.

14. A crowd of more than seventy-five thousand persons is expected. The number will not equal the record-breaking figure of 1933, however. [See 27.10.]
15. He did not mean this statement literally, I assume.

EXERCISE J. EMPHASIS BY REPETITION

Increase the emphasis in the following sentences by repeating the important word.

1. His massive chest and heavily muscled arms speak of a strength which was once the pride of Vikings and which has been handed down from generation to generation without a trace of deterioration. [Emphasize *strength*.]
2. I was tired and footsore, but the road stretched on before me endlessly.
3. Efficiency! We must have it in our business, in our leisure, in our search for culture.
4. Hurry! How I have grown to hate that word!
5. He thinks that we are threatened with the downfall of capitalism, with mob government, with chaos and confusion.

EXERCISE K. REVIEW OF EMPHASIS

Write an example of each of the following:

1. Balanced sentence (27.4):
2. Periodic sentence (27.8):
3. Loose sentence (27.8):
4. "Buried" transitional expression (27.10):
5. Climactic order (27.11):
6. Transposed word order (27.12):
7. Emphasis by repetition (27.14):
8. Rhetorical question (27.17):

PRACTICE SHEET 70

Name.....Date.....

CHAPTER 27. EXERCISE L. REVIEW OF EMPHASIS

By means of the rule numbers of Chapter 27, indicate at the right the methods by which emphasis is secured in the following selections from De Quincey's "Joan of Arc"—omitting the very common methods of subordination (27.1), the use of the proper voice (27.2, 27.3), conciseness (27.13), and variety (27.15). Remember that a sentence may employ more than one method of emphasis. If you find a sentence without special emphasis, write, "None." If an instance of parallelism involves a pair of sentences, put 27.4 for each and connect the two insertions of the number by drawing a circle around them.

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>1) What is to be thought of <i>her</i>? 2) What is to be thought of the poor shepherd girl from the hills and forests of Lorraine, that—like the Hebrew shepherd boy from the hills and forests of Judea—rose suddenly out of the quiet, out of the safety, out of the religious inspiration, rooted in deep pastoral solitudes, to a station in the van of armies, and to the more perilous station at the right hand of kings?</p> <p>3) The Hebrew boy inaugurated his patriotic mission by an <i>act</i>, by a victorious <i>act</i>, such as no man could deny.</p> <p>4) But so did the girl of Lorraine, if we read her story as it was read by those who saw her nearest. 5) Adverse armies bore witness to the boy as no pretender; but so they did to the gentle girl. 6) Judged by the voices of all who saw them <i>from a station of good will</i>, both were found true and loyal to any promises involved in their first acts. 7) Enemies it was that made the difference between their subsequent fortunes. 8) The boy rose to a splendour and a noonday prosperity, both personal and public, that rang through the records of his people, and became a byword among his posterity for a thousand years, until the sceptre was departing from Judah. 9) The poor, forsaken girl, on the contrary, drank not herself from that cup of rest which she had secured for France. 10) She never sang together with the songs that rose in her native Domremy as echoes to the departing steps of invaders. 11) She mingled not in the festal dances at Vaucouleur which celebrated in rapture the redemption of France. 12) No! for her voice was then silent; no! for her feet were dust. . . .</p> | <p>1. _____</p> <p>2. _____</p> <p>3. _____</p> <p>4. _____</p> <p>5. _____</p> <p>6. _____</p> <p>7. _____</p> <p>8. _____</p> <p>9. _____</p> <p>10. _____</p> <p>11. _____</p> <p>12. _____</p> |
|--|--|

- . . . 13) Who is this that cometh from Domremy? 13. _____
 14) Who is she in bloody coronation robes from Rheims? 14. _____
 15) Who is she that cometh with blackened flesh from 15. _____
 walking the furnaces of Rouen? 16) This is she, the 16. _____
 shepherd girl, counsellor that had none for herself, whom 17. _____
 I choose, bishop, for yours. 17) She it is, I engage, that 18. _____
 shall take my lord's brief. 18) She it is, bishop, that would
 plead for you; yes, bishop, *she*—when heaven and earth
 are silent.

EXERCISE M. REVIEW OF EMPHASIS

Make the following sentences more emphatic.

1. I had a class under a professor who made my blood boil with his dogmatic personal views and complacent misstatements. I wanted to throw myself into an argument with him, tear his statements to pieces, and settle the matter to my own satisfaction, but I didn't do it. A self-satisfied teacher does not invite argument against his statements. [27.5, 27.13, 27.15, 27.17]
2. We can not afford to adopt this plan, if I understand it correctly. [*This plan* and *adopt* to be emphasized—27.6, 27.9, 27.12]
3. My roommate likes to argue about religion, philosophy, politics, and so forth.
4. I was just dropping off to sleep when a repeated thump startled me.
5. If I were to vote for this proposition, I should consider myself a coward, a traitor, an ungrateful citizen.
6. The farmers and wage-earners together constitute a considerable majority of the people of the country. Their interests should not be ignored in considering financial legislation. [27.17]

PRACTICE SHEET 71

Name.....

Roy Keefe

Date.....

*1.7.1944*CHAPTER 28. EXERCISE F.¹ CORRECT AND APPROPRIATE DICTION

Choosing between or among the words in parentheses in each sentence, write at the left the expression that is correct in meaning, idiomatic, and standard. See rules 28.1, 28.4, 28.5, 28.6, 28.7, 28.8, 28.12, and especially 28.20.

- | | |
|---------------------|--|
| <u>accept</u> | 1. He will not (accept, except) the appointment. |
| <u>except</u> | 2. All (accept, except) Hudson were present. |
| <u>inform</u> | 3. Kindly (advise, inform) me when you are coming. |
| <u>effect</u> | 4. What is the (affect, effect) of this drug? |
| <u>affect</u> | 5. How did the climate (affect, effect) his health? |
| <u>affected</u> | 6. His operation (affected, effected) a cure. |
| <u>aggravates</u> | 7. Jazz music (aggravates, irritates) me. |
| <u>illusion</u> | 8. A mirage is an optical (allusion, illusion). |
| <u>allusions</u> | 9. He made several (allusions, illusions) to Burns. |
| <u>all ready</u> | 10. Dinner is (all ready, already). |
| <u>already</u> | 11. I have (all ready, already) registered. |
| <u>all together</u> | 12. We saw them (all together, altogether). |
| <u>rest</u> | 13. The (balance, rest) of the members were late. |
| <u>censured</u> | 14. He was (censored, censured) for his conduct. |
| <u>practicable</u> | 15. This law is not (practical, practicable). |
| <u>dumb</u> | 16. He is too (dumb, stupid) to succeed in law. |
| <u>into</u> | 17. He tossed the papers (in, into) the fire. |
| <u>mad at</u> | 18. She is (mad, angry) (at, with) me. |
| <u>shape</u> | 19. Long is in good (condition, shape) for the game. |
| <u>reared</u> | 20. I was born and (raised, reared) in Maine. |
| <u>to go</u> | 21. They plan (on going, to go) today. |
| <u>healthful</u> | 22. Walking is (healthy, healthful) exercise. |

¹ For Exercises A-E and J-L, see *A Writer's Manual*, Chapter 28, pages 185-86.

A WRITER'S WORKBOOK

EXERCISE G. FAULTY DICTION

Place C before each sentence with no word that is incorrect in meaning or inappropriate for formal writing. Revise all violations of correct meaning and standard usage. See rules 28.4, 28.5, 28.6, 28.7, 28.8, and especially 28.20.

1. An ape is ~~nowhere near~~^{not nearly} as intelligent as a human being.
2. He ~~claims~~^{maintains} that it was below zero last night.
3. I ~~suspected~~^{suspected} him from the very beginning.
4. ~~Most~~^{enthusiastic} everyone was enthused by the speech.
5. I sure ~~feel~~^{bad} about ~~busting~~^{breaking} your racket.
6. ~~Those~~^{these} guys ~~ain't got no~~^{haven't any} pep.
7. The dog seemed to be ~~mad~~^{mad}.
8. What kind of ~~a~~^{professor} prof is he? ~~Ain't he sorta goofy?~~^{Isn't he funny?}
9. Where do you live ~~at~~?
10. I'm mighty glad that I could ~~learn~~^{teach} you something.
11. Please repeat the statement ~~again~~^{again}.
12. I am sending you a typewriter to ~~be fixed~~^{repair}.
13. All my ~~exams~~^{examinations} are over ~~with~~.
14. ~~These~~^{is} kind of movies ~~are lousy~~^{aren't any good}.
15. We have ~~plenty~~^{enough} food for a party of ten.
16. She has a ~~nice~~^{beautiful} figure, and she is a grand person.
17. All letters mailed in the war zone were censored.
18. Only ~~two gentlemen~~^{gentlemen} and three ~~ladies~~^{ladies} were in the bus.
19. He was very disappointed; I feel ~~awfully~~^{extremely} sorry for him.
20. This is a ~~nice~~^{nice} car, but it costs ~~lots of dough~~^{enough money}.
21. I could ~~of~~^{have} told you that the coach wouldn't ~~leave~~^{let} you play.
22. I was with a swell ~~date~~^{person} last night.
23. We've had a ~~lovely~~^{have pleasant} visit.
24. I doubt that Lynch will win.

PRACTICE SHEET 72

Name..... Date.....

CHAPTER 28. EXERCISE H. FAULTY DICTION

Correct inaccuracies, triteness, unintentional suggestions, and mixed figures of speech.
~~See rules 28.1, 28.2, 28.11, 28.16, and 28.18.~~

1. During my trip from Manila to Seattle, I was in deep oblivion and imagination, thinking of the life my family was living at home.
2. The beautiful setting of this book takes place in the tropical forests of South America.
3. This selection enumerates a narrow escape Masefield once had while he was sailing around Cape Horn.
4. He was sadly in need of a friend to assuage his fears.
5. In my preceding paragraphs I will relate briefly the processes of smelting and refining iron ore. (From an introductory paragraph.)
6. Many customs are brought out in this book.
7. I looked around the edge of the horizon for signs of life, but I was disillusioned.
8. Last, but by no means least, for the sake of your own happiness, never make any plans for tomorrow.
9. I have a role to act that differs from either my past or future plans of life.
10. The dying rays of the sun flooded the hills.
11. The content of the book travels along evenly, holding together well.
12. Galileo was summoned to the Inquisition because he upheld the Copernican theory, which was sacrilege at that time.

13. The drawings were made from living plants in every case.
14. I have given enough of the subject matter of the book to portray a vague conception of Athenian life.
15. The slightest ripple on the usually calm waters of the average college is pounced upon.
16. These organizations are mired in the political whirl.
17. Life is like a wolf nibbling at our heels, urging us to forge away.
18. The thread of unity in the book is well depicted.
19. Chopin's health decreased rapidly after this immediate consequence.
20. The writer does not wish to profess any profound ideas for a solution.
21. Play, art, science, and dramatics are the most satisfactory ways to indulge in as activities that satisfy the four qualifications of true leisure.
22. The swimming pool was surrounded with an area of extremely shallow water for the little children to splash in.
23. There are three things that I want to drop as ferment into your ears this happy day so pregnant with unfoldable possibilities.
24. After two years of hoping, Mrs. A. Q. Slifer yesterday received definite information that her husband is dead.
25. The duke had been usurped from the throne by his brother.
26. It will be a great satisfaction to have your loved ones entombed in our reinforced concrete vaults.
27. Shakespeare's reading was evidently omnivorous.
28. The reason for the increase in crime is due to several things.

PRACTICE SHEET 73

Name Date

REVIEW. EXERCISE A. GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS

Specify the type of each sentence; punctuate the material; and classify the under-scored elements as to kind and construction. Review Chapters 1-5 and 8-13, especially § E of Chapter 10 and § B, § C, § D, and § E of Chapter 13.

Type of Sentence	Punctuation (Insert the punctuation in the text below.)	Kind of Element	Construction
(S., Cx., Cd., Cx- Cd.)		(N., Pron., Adj., Adv., Prep., Conj., Verb, Prep'l Phr., Indep. Cl., Dep. Cl.)	(S. of _____, D.O. of _____, I.O. of _____, S.C. of [verb], O. of P. _____, Adj. Mod'r of _____, Adv'l Mod'r of _____, App. with _____, Verb of _____, Indep. Cl., Prep. governing _____, N.A.)

1. She ^agave ^bhim an angry ^aVerb Verb of "She"

^clook ^dthen she hastily re- b. _____

sumed her work. c. _____

d. _____
2. I thought ^athat he was a a. _____

^bcollege ^cgraduate. b. _____

c. _____
3. Mr. Hayes the ^amanager a. _____

worked every ^bday ^calthough b. _____

he was really too ill. c. _____
4. ^aImagine the difficulties ^bof a. _____

a poor immigrant woman b. _____

one ^cwho can ^dnot speak write c. _____

or understand English. d. _____
5. ^aDuring January and the a. _____

early days of February the b. _____

weather was ^bvery ^ccold. c. _____

Type of Sentence	Punctuation	Kind of Element	Construction
— 6.	^a The pupil should be taught to apply himself to difficult tasks he must overcome ^b many ^c obstacles ^d in later life.	a. _____ b. _____ c. _____ d. _____	_____
— 7.	There are many ^a hardships in ^b life.	a. _____ b. _____	_____
— 8.	^a Jones please come ^b here.	a. _____ b. _____	_____
— 9.	The Indians learn to ride their canoes very ^a well and a ^b few of them have gone ^c on long trips especially ^d some ^e of the Alaskan Indians.	a. _____ b. _____ c. _____ d. _____ e. _____	_____
— 10.	It is a great ^a surprise to me ^b that Sorling has been made ^c coach.	a. _____ b. _____ c. _____	_____
— 11.	^a In my ^b Father's house are many ^c mansions.— <i>John</i> 14:2.	a. _____ b. _____ c. _____	_____
— 12.	^a If the blind lead the ^b blind ^c both shall fall ^d into the ditch.— <i>Matthew</i> 15:14.	a. _____ b. _____ c. _____ d. _____	_____
— 13.	His mother ^a who died in 1900 was an ^b actress.	a. _____ b. _____	_____

PRACTICE SHEET 74

Name.....Date.....

REVIEW. EXERCISE B. GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS

Specify the type of each sentence; punctuate the material; and classify the under-scored elements as to kind and construction. Study the summary in Chapter 20, § A; for a fuller explanation, see Chapters 1-5, 8-13, and 16-18.

Type of Sen- tence	Punctuation (Insert the punctuation in the text below.)	Kind of Element	Construction
(S., Cx., Cd., Cx.- Cd.)		(N., Pron., Adj., Adv., Prep., Conj., Finite Verb, Part., Ger., Inf., Prep'l Phr., Indep. Cl., Dep. Cl.)	{S. of _____, D.O. of _____, I.O. of _____, S.C. of [verb], O.C. of [verb], O. of P. _____, App. with _____, N.A., Adj. Mod'r of _____, Adv'l Mod'r of _____, Verb of _____, Indep. Cl.)

1. ^aI go ^bto the country ^cto
forget the town and all ^dthat
is in it.

a. Pron. S. of "go"
b. _____
c. _____
d. _____
2. Remember ^athat time is
^bmoney.—Franklin.

a. _____
b. _____
3. He ^awho receives a good
turn should ^bnever forget ^cit
he ^dwho does one should
never remember it.—Charron.

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____
d. _____
4. We ^aseldom ^bfind people
^cungrateful as long as we are
in a ^dcondition to render
^ethem services.—Rochefou-
cauld.

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____
d. _____
e. _____
5. It is a characteristic ^aof
human nature ^bto go ^cfrom
^done extreme to another.

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____
d. _____

<i>Type of Sen- tence</i>	<i>Punctuation</i>	<i>Kind of Element</i>	<i>Construction</i>
_____ 6.	^a When the candles are out all women ^b are ^c fair.—Plutarch.	a. _____ b. _____ c. _____	_____
_____ 7.	^a Hoffman where is the ^b broken ^c racket?	a. _____ b. _____ c. _____	_____
_____ 8.	^a Hunting ducks is my ^b brother's favorite ^c sport.	a. _____ b. _____ c. _____	_____
_____ 9.	Carl Bond the ^a editor urges everyone to have his sitting ^b this ^c week ^d next month will be ^e too late.	a. _____ b. _____ c. _____ d. _____ e. _____	_____
_____ 10.	^a Being very tired he asked ^b to be excused from ^c talking to the crowd.	a. _____ b. _____ c. _____	_____
_____ 11.	^a Creditors have better mem- ories ^b than ^c debtors. —Franklin.	a. _____ b. _____ c. _____	_____
_____ 12.	^a To know the disease is the ^b commencement ^c of the cure. —Cervantes.	a. _____ b. _____ c. _____	_____
_____ 13.	It is not work that ^a kills a ^b person ^c it is worry.— Beecher.	a. _____ b. _____ c. _____	_____

PRACTICE SHEET 76

Name Date

REVIEW. EXERCISE D. FRAGMENTS

Revise the passages in which there are fragments written as sentences. If you find passages without fragments, place *C.* before them. Consult Chapter 4 and rules 20.1, 10.10, 13.10, 16.7, and 16.8. For the punctuation of the elements incorrectly set up as sentences here, see the proper rules.

1. Rölvaag's *Giants in the Earth* portrays the life of early settlers in the Dakotas. Especially of immigrants from Norway.
2. Per Hansa is a very hardy man. One who is always thinking of the future and has the ambition to become very prosperous and wealthy.
3. His wife, Beret, is not adapted to pioneer life. She is frightened by the great open plains and thinks that they are not a fit place for Christians to make their home.
4. The two oldest boys are like their father. Being full of adventure and eager to undertake new things.
5. At times I felt that Per Hansa cared more for his work than for his wife and children. Although he really loved his family.
6. The leading characters of the novel live many miles from the nearest trading centers. Whenever they go to town, they are away for days and days.
7. Dakota blizzards were often very severe. Usually starting with strong wind and becoming furious snowstorms in which man and beast could hardly survive unless well protected.
8. Per Hansa and his neighbors constructed their houses of sod and had only one or two rooms. Whereas the early inhabitants of Sioux Falls built wooden dwellings and whitewashed the walls.
9. One of the longest railroad tunnels in the world is the Simplon, located in Switzerland and Italy. It is over twelve miles in length.

10. The value of gold remained nearly stationary for the fifty years before 1934. The government of this country having set a price of \$20.67 per ounce (Troy weight) for gold of 1000 fineness at any United States mint.
11. Perhaps the most famous group of buildings in the world today is the one on the Acropolis at Athens, Greece. This is a product of Hellenic architecture.
12. No modern man would dream of tyrannizing over his wife the way the old-fashioned husband did. Grandpa considered that he was the oracle in his family and that grandma had no right to any personal liberty whatever. She was his slave. His chattel.
13. Henley's "Invictus" is a poem about a man who has had many hardships and has come out victorious. Victorious in the sense that he has taken the blows like a man.
14. Prospecting for gold has always been and probably will always be a hazardous occupation. A type of work that takes one to the heights of anticipation and to the depths of despair.
15. They would work two or three days in one place and then go on to the next farmer. Their thought being that by moving around they could forget sorrows.
16. Two conferences have been held by the leading cancer specialists of England, the United States, and Sweden. One in London and the other in America.
17. Mr. Small did not see the real beauties of nature in his travels to scenic places. He went primarily to be able to say that he had been sight-seeing.
18. He was a person of high social rank and of considerable wealth. Having butlers, maids, and many other servants.
19. Mrs. Rice was a sister of John Lutton and a first cousin of the late W. E. Kerr. Also an aunt of David Cowan, a resident of Omaha.

PRACTICE SHEET 77

Name..... Date.....

REVIEW. EXERCISE E. COMMA SPLICES AND "RUN-TOGETHER" SENTENCES

Place C. before sentences that are punctuated correctly. Revise comma splices and "run-together" sentences in accordance with Chapter 5, § E and § F; Chapter 24, § B; and Chapter 13, § E. For further information on the punctuation of clauses, see Chapter 5, § D; Chapter 10, § C; Chapter 11, § C; and Chapter 12, § B.

1. The staff of the college year book needs typists and office workers, all those willing to help are asked to report any afternoon between three and five o'clock.
2. Most graduates do not regret their four years of college in fact they feel that their time and money have been well spent.
3. Richard II had been a very tyrannical king so Henry IV, who practically usurped the throne, was at first popular in a negative way, but this popularity did not last long.
4. The author's conviction is that college students should have less freedom in the choice of their subjects.
5. According to the *Musical Courier*, Jenny Lind's first New York recital was given in 1858 before seven thousand persons, who paid \$26,000 to hear the famous Swedish singer.
6. Before the discovery of America the estimated value of Europe's gold was only \$225,000,000, since then it has increased to nearly \$11,000,000,000.
7. The Japanese basketball players were much smaller than the members of the local team, however the Orientals made up in speed and fight what they lacked in size.
8. When the Czar of Russia was banished to Ekaterinburg after the Revolution of 1917, practically the only thing that he took with him was his stamp collection, then worth about \$250,000.
9. This famous collection was later split up and sold in Paris by the present Russian government for more than three times that sum.
10. Norma (in Bellini's *Norma*) tells the people that she is the guilty one, hence she and her lover are placed upon the funeral pyre together.
11. Our plan did not prove satisfactory so we abandoned it.
12. When under the magical power of Klingsor, Kundry is very beautiful but wicked, at other times she is ugly but good.

13. The faculty is not much concerned with whether or not the student . applies himself to his studies, he is on his own responsibility.
14. He was a very talkative barber, so he was unable to keep still while cutting a man's hair.
15. To Olson the land seemed to be an endless expanse of prairie, he . could look for miles and miles without seeing anything but grass.
16. Aelfrida loves Aethelwold until she learns that she could have been queen, then she betrays him to the king.
17. They were not at home so I came right back.

REVIEW. EXERCISE F. PUNCTUATION OF CLAUSES

Punctuate clauses, transitional expressions, and the following elements (which are sometimes confused with clauses): participial phrases, nominatives absolute, appositives. In the left margin, write opposite each mark of punctuation (or the first of a pair of marks) the number of the rule that applies. See rules 5.1-13, 10.1-12, 11.3-10, 12.1-9, 13.8-10, and 16.5-8. A summary of clauses and their punctuation is to be found in Chapter 13, § D and § E.

1. I admit that these experiences may be a little out of the ordinary but they are not so unusual as has been widely believed.
2. The virtue of prosperity is temperance the virtue of adversity is fortitude.
3. The teacher should know the case history of every pupil otherwise she may endanger his health by expecting too much of him.
4. Rarely is a man so bad that he does not desire to be thought good.
5. If we will rightly estimate what we call good and evil we shall find it lies much in comparison.—Locke.
6. In 1870 three fourths of the American people were rural today three fourths are urban.
7. Many of the children are not able to leave the hospital and about a hundred are so weak that they must stay in bed.
8. The Nez Percés were the most distinguished representatives of the Shoshone family ranking far above the other tribes in physique and intelligence.
9. Mr. and Mrs. Harold F. McCormick who were among the earliest promoters of the Chicago Grand Opera Company gave over five million dollars to that organization.
10. The lowest temperature was registered on December 10 when the thermometer went down to zero.
11. Timber-cruising is a business in which honesty is absolutely necessary for the reports that the cruiser submits involve thousands of dollars.

PRACTICE SHEET 78

Name..... Date.....

REVIEW. EXERCISE G. PUNCTUATION OF CLAUSES

Punctuate clauses, transitional expressions, and the following elements (which are sometimes confused with clauses): participial phrases, nominatives absolute, appositives. In the left margin, write opposite each mark of punctuation (or the first of a pair of marks) the number of the rule that applies. See rules 5.1-13, 10.1-12, 11.3-10, 12.1-9, 13.8-10, and 16.5-8. A summary of clauses and their punctuation is to be found in Chapter 13, § D and § E.

12. The pay received by such a man indicates the value and scarcity of good timber-cruisers a day's wages being from ten to twenty-five dollars.
13. Most of the commercial banks of today are designed to perform two primary functions receiving short-time deposits and making short-time loans.
14. Farming is both a business and a way of living that is a farm is a source of money income and also a home.
15. Somehow I received no genuine pleasure from reading this book although it was full of interesting adventures and valuable information about Tibet.
16. No one really sympathizes with this eccentric man in fact many ridicule him.
17. Rome has fewer inhabitants today than it had two thousand years ago.
18. He works extremely hard hence he expects his clerks to do the same.
19. Nagurski scored both touchdowns the first coming after a drive of fifty-one yards in a series of line plunges.
20. It is estimated that at least thirty-six thousand people were killed in automobile accidents in the United States in 1934.
21. The estimate of the Travelers Insurance Company is that about 950,000 persons were injured in automobile accidents in the United States in 1934.
22. William H. Woodin who became Secretary of the Treasury in 1933 was also a poet and musician.
23. I envy people who are immune to poison ivy.
24. The prisoner gave his name as Victor Holt denying that he was Brown.

25. Many skilled laborers were demanded in that industry consequently a large number of people enrolled in universities and technical schools to acquire the training needed for working up.
26. Difficulties are things that show what men are.—Epictetus.
27. America has been building up a material civilization some of the older countries have been developing an intellectual one.
28. When choosing a wife look down the social scale when selecting a friend look upwards.—Talmud.

REVIEW. EXERCISE H. PUNCTUATION AND OTHER MECHANICS

Add punctuation, capitalization, italicization, apostrophes, and hyphens. If the writing of any numbers, compound words, or abbreviations does not conform to the practice recommended for general writing, make the necessary changes. Consult Chapters 21 and 22.

1. Tom I certainly enjoyed Hardys far from the madding crowd it is the best novel that I have read recently.
2. Though the title doesnt sound exciting a great deal happens to the hero heroine and minor characters several of whom are very interesting.
3. Bathsheba the heroine of the story has a queer name however she is a likable character.
4. Thinking the hero too plain a man she is attracted by the villains dashing personality.
5. In a never to be forgotten scene the author describes an unexpected meeting of 3 characters the heroine a friend of hers and the villain.
6. The author not having died till Jan 11 1928 it is hard to realize that he was born in 1840.
7. The author deals with country life near Dorchester Eng about eighteen hundred and fifty but the novel makes a strong appeal to American readers of today.
8. The recital was given by Ruth Slenczynski an eight year old pianist.
9. No he replied I am not a pessimist.
10. He is an honest hard working man.
11. The present officers of the society are as follows president Joseph Carner vice president Oscar Richards secretary Clyde George and treasurer Frank Roberts.
12. A question frequently asked is this who are the real enemies of wild life
13. Sheridans school for scandal an 18th century comedy is a well written play.

PRACTICE SHEET 79

Name..... Date.....

REVIEW. EXERCISE J. PUNCTUATION AND OTHER MECHANICS

Add punctuation, capitalization, italicization, apostrophes, and hyphens. If the writing of any numbers, compound words, or abbreviations does not conform to the practice recommended for general writing, make the necessary changes. Consult Chapters 21 and 22.

14. Soaper is a plump blue eyed; dimple chinned man with wavy, red hair.
15. He had four children; James who moved to Kentucky; John who remained upon the homestead; Elizabeth about whom nothing is known and Francis who went to California.
16. Housman's, to an athlete dying Young is an interesting little poem with the theme that an athletes achievements are soon forgotten.
17. On the day that I left; eighty-thousand men marched through the streets.
18. In the *elks* magazine John R. Tunis tells about many famous postage stamps; among them is the only known specimen of the third issue of the first stamp ever put out by British Guiana. This was originally found on an old envelope by a schoolboy of Georgetown, British Guiana as he was rummaging in the family attic after keeping it for some years he sold it to a dealer for six shillings about a dollar and fifty cents; the dealer sold it to Thomas Ridpath of Liverpool Eng for \$600; it was next purchased by Count von Ferrain for several hundred dollars and after the world war it brought \$32,500 at auction; the buyer was an American, Arthur Hinds, who thus broke all records of prices paid for solitary stamps; today according to Mr Tunis that one cent stamp is catalogued as worth fifty-thousand dollars.
19. [In this passage, write the paragraph sign (§) wherever a new paragraph should begin; a nearly vertical line indicates a change of speaker.] As John Philip Sousa, the famous bandmaster and composer of march music, was visiting on one occasion a governmental bureau at Washington D C; the girl in charge of visitors asked him

whom he wished to see what is your name please she went on / Sousa / what is your first name / John / any middle name / Philip / what business are you in Mr Sousa / well replied the widely known musician I am a United States Naval Commander I have been decorated by every ruler in Europe I have traveled some millions of miles with my band in all countries of the world I received a check of \$40,000 for phonograph royalties last year and \$200,000 from my publishers and oh yes Ive written some marches this is the first time however that anyone ever asked me who I am.

20. William Shakespeare an eminent teacher of singing died in Cincinnati O on Aug 8 1933 at the age of 53. He was born in London was educated at Harrow and received his training in voice in England from his father after coming to America in 1908 he first taught singing in Toronto Can and then moved to Chicago where he remained until a yr before his death he is said to have been a relative of the famous poet and dramatist of the same name.
21. Theyre planning to start at 8:30 A M.
22. Ill dismiss this case said the judge the evidence is not sufficient.
23. He asked what I was doing.
24. Examples of natural monopolies that is those based on the nature of the business are the telephone railway and water supply industries.
25. Five lettermen Smith Crawford Dunlap Howard and Ripley will be lost by graduation.
26. When a hippopotamus becomes greatly excited tiny pores in its skin exude an oily substance tintured with blood hence the animal is said to sweat blood.
27. Jacksons interests center in the following subjects english spanish music and sociology.
28. Sixty five years ago well informed people thought that to transmit the human voice over wires was impossible.
29. My dislike for algebra I thoroughly hated the subject made my first year of high school a constant nightmare.
30. I am reading the good earth a novel by Pearl Buck.

PRACTICE SHEET 82

Name.....Date.....

REVIEW. EXERCISE N. GRAMMATICAL USAGE

Correct grammatical errors in accordance with the first twenty chapters of the *Manual*. If you find a correct sentence, write *C* before it.

12. When drinking coffee, his mustache served to strain out the grounds.
13. The reason why I am sleepy is because I drove nearly all night.
14. The flood's violence is still increasing.
15. Inductive reasoning is when a conclusion is drawn from a number of specific instances.
16. He died suddenly while dictating a letter as the result of heart failure.
17. When a person thinks of education, they generally associate it with the child's mental and cultural training.
18. A chief characteristic of the clinker boat is that it is watertight. A factor of great importance when one considers that sometimes one's life might depend on the ability of the boat to keep from leaking.
19. When only a small boy, my Airdale puppy gave me much pleasure.
20. In "Requiem" Stevenson says that he is not afraid to die, he wants to go to death much as a hunter comes home over the hills.
21. The architect planned to have the mosaics covered with matting before being plastered over.
22. The cannery is opened every year about the first of June, varying according to the time of the ripening of the crops.
23. Mrs. Smith, I enjoyed the party so much.
24. Hard work seemed to be necessary for passing in that course, therefore I decided to apply myself diligently.
25. *Hamlet* has probably been acted oftener than any of Shakespeare's plays.
26. A century ago social dancing was much different than it is today.

REVIEW. EXERCISE O. EFFECTIVENESS

Make the following passages more effective in respect to conciseness, subordination, variety, clearness, parallel structure, and emphasis. See Chapters 23-27 and rule 13.1. Some of the errors you can detect most easily by reading the sentences aloud.

1. The speaker dealt with a subject of vital importance but on which he was poorly informed.
2. Mrs. Roscoe Krout won the grand prize with her jar of creamed chicken, which included a complete outfit of clothing and a hundred dollars in cash.
3. The building is circular in shape.
4. Air is a free gift of nature.
5. We were not allowed to talk aloud.
6. It was in the year of 1916 that the prices first began to rise.
7. For this purpose an electric furnace is usually used.
8. Cyrus Moore was changing a tire yesterday morning when he was struck by a truck and instantly killed.
9. We hope that the members not only will attend the concert but also aid in the sale of tickets.
10. The Jew's harp was invented by a Frenchman, the Scotch bagpipe and the Irish harp by the Egyptians, the English horn was originated by the ancient Hebrews, and an Irishman made the plans for the French horn.
11. Thomas Wolsey was early intimately associated with Henry VIII.
12. He complained about his misfortunes and how cruel God was to him.
13. The course was uninteresting and a waste of time.
14. It doesn't pay to trifle with one's health, I have found.
15. Antony has killed himself so Cleopatra decides that she cannot live without him so she lets an asp sting her.
16. An agreement was agreed upon by Faust and Mephistopheles.

PRACTICE SHEET 83

Name Date

REVIEW. EXERCISE P. EFFECTIVENESS

Make the following passages more effective in respect to conciseness, subordination, variety, clearness, parallel structure, and emphasis. See Chapters 23-27.

17. Every time he smiled, you could see the gold fillings in his teeth.
18. In Schiller's *Maid of Orleans*, Joan dies on the battlefield, which is very effective on the stage.
19. The shape of Greece is a peninsula with water on three sides.
20. It would take a long time to explain all these methods, so I will tell you about only the latest one.
21. It was late one afternoon in Paris in the Jardin d'Acclamation, as a group of spectators stood around the monkeys, that a peculiar episode took place.
22. We had just reached the middle of the street when I saw a large black automobile driving very fast and recklessly toward us.
23. The governor smoked a cigar during the interview and, despite its length, appeared unfatigued at its conclusion.

REVIEW. EXERCISE Q. EFFECTIVENESS

On a separate sheet, specify the main rhetorical defect of the following paragraph, and revise the passage.

I headed this theme "My Favorite Hobby," but, when I gave the subject more thought, I found that I have various hobbies in place of one, and these seemed to form two distinct groups, one consisting of hunting and fishing and the other of athletic games, but on giving the subject still more thought, I found that there was a reason why I should like these two types of pastime, and that was the locality in which we live, which is highly suitable for wild game of many kinds. Naturally a growing boy would take up the fascinating sport of hunting and fishing, and such a locality also forced me to attend a small high school, and, because athletes were few, I had the opportunity of playing in every form of athletics that the little institution had, but it was here that I seemed to find myself, but not till I started playing baseball in the spring of my

freshman year, when I made the team. Something seemed to lead me on, forming an interest which caused me to put every effort possible into the game, although I didn't make a very good showing my first year, because I had much to learn, but practice seemed to make me sure of myself, and at the end of my sophomore year I was beginning to know what it was all about, and in the following two years I succeeded in making the town team in a small league, and there I learned still more especially about batting, and in the second of these two seasons my average was above four hundred.

REVIEW. EXERCISE R. EFFECTIVENESS

On a separate sheet, specify the two main rhetorical defects of the following passage and revise the material.

If one is to learn an athletic game in college, golf is the superior game to learn. The ordinary person has two games which he may learn. These two games are golf and tennis. The ordinary person is limited to these two games because of considerations of ability. It is only the exceptional person who plays football, basketball, and baseball in college.

Golf is superior to tennis because golf can be played throughout one's life. Golf is the less strenuous of the two games, and yet golf provides the necessary exercise. Few men of forty can play a good-enough game of tennis to enjoy it, but most men of forty can play a good-enough game of golf to enjoy it. Golf is more of a social game, and many business men make social and business contacts in playing golf. A professional man's success depends upon his acquaintances to a considerable extent, and golf is one way of making acquaintances. This is not so true of tennis, because fewer people play tennis than golf; there are fewer tennis clubs than golf clubs, and tennis is not much of a social game.

Because of the limitations placed upon college students by considerations of ability, I think that, of the athletic games which students may learn, golf is the most desirable game to learn.

Treat the following passage in the same way.

I beg to say that it affords me a very great deal of pleasure to cordially recommend Mr. Claude Steele for a teaching appointment in history. I have known Mr. Steele since his entrance to this university and have been intimately associated with him in his work. It is, therefore, upon full acquaintance with his powers and possibilities that I state with confidence that any college employing him in the capacity as stated would profit thereby.

PRACTICE SHEET 84

Name..... Date

REVIEW. EXERCISE S. ITALICS AND QUOTATION MARKS

Study rules 21.49 and 22.3m and Chapter 22, §D. Assuming that the following word groups do not begin sentences except the last two, capitalize, italicize, and insert quotation marks according to formal usage.

the solitary reaper [short poem]	Thomas Jefferson [book]
the Iliad [long poem]	per capita
rapes of wrath [novel]	crossing the bar [short poem]
the Queen Mary [ship]	Carmen [opera]
the courts [chapter of a book]	the Iowa [battleship]
rock of ages [hymn]	the Boston transcript [newspaper]
the merchant of Venice [play]	chemical abstracts [magazine]
the open window [short story]	coup d'état
music by mail [magazine article]	Rebecca [movie]
business law [textbook]	ibid.
the Sacramento bee [newspaper]	the forum [magazine]
the birth of a nation [movie]	Putsch
when a friend marries [essay]	green pastures [play]
facts and ideas [book]	my old Kentucky home
pièce de résistance [French]	science and religion [essay]
relief in Ohio [magazine article]	op. cit.
the reader's digest [magazine]	on the stairs [short story]
Hayes vs. Shaw [law case]	the cloud [short poem]
spring song [short piano piece]	giants in the earth [novel]
Mendelssohn's Italian symphony	John Brown's body [long poem]
the word white	He misspelled friend.
punctuation [chapter of a book]	Offer has two f's.

EXERCISE T. MECHANICS

Besides the rules referred to in Exercise S, review rules 9.3, 9.5, 9.6, 22.7, and 22.27, and Chapter 22, §C and §G. Make the following sentences correct for formal writing respect to capitals, italics, quotation marks, hyphens, apostrophes, and the writing numbers.

- During the Xmas vacation I read 3 novels: Mitchells gone with the wind, Hudsons green mansions, and Galsworthys the man of property.



2. Undergraduates never change was an interesting article in American mercury for Sept., 1939.
3. He wrote across with 2 cs and misspelled chief by putting th before the i.
4. On Jan. 7, 1939, he sailed from N. Y. for Liverpool, Eng.
5. The best liked short stories of O'Henry are probably the gift of magi, a municipal report, and Phoebe.
6. At present my favorite short poems are Keats ode on a Grecian u / Byrons she walks in beauty, and Brownings my last duchess. W I was 13, they were Scotts Lochinvar and Longfellows a psalm of
7. When -ing is added to swim, the m is doubled; when the same suffi added to make, the e is dropped, and the k remains single.
8. The Lusitania was sunk on May 7th, 1915, by a Ger. submarine w the loss of a hundred and fourteen Amer. lives.
9. Among the words most frequently misspelled by college students too, receive, their, and believe.
10. Mr. Whites dog looks more like yours than like ours.
11. The 1st 3 chaps. of Claudius O. Johnsons Borah of Idaho are Middle West, the West, and oratory and politics.
12. "Whose car is this?" "Mrs. Green told me its hers."
13. Be careful not to obstruct someone elses view.
14. The larger towns of the region were connected by four horse stag but my grandparents lived on a little traveled trail.
15. A. M. Jordans educational psychology contains a chapter called ho to study and one entitled the laws of learning.
16. In trying to save a three cent stamp, I lost a five dollar bill.
17. I was greatly thrilled by the performance of Maurice Evans Shakespeares Hamlet—a well known actor in a great play.
18. Lincoln was born on Feb. twelfth, eighteen hundred and nine.
19. Usually has 2 ls because the suffix -ly is added to usual.

